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SYSTEMATIC TEXT-BOOK

OF

ENGLISH GRAMMAR,

ON A NEW PLAN:

WITH COPIOUS

QUESTIONS AND EXERCISES.

BY SMITH B. GOODENOW, LATE PRINCIPAL OF BATH ACADEMY.

PORTLAND: WILLIAM HYDE. 1839.

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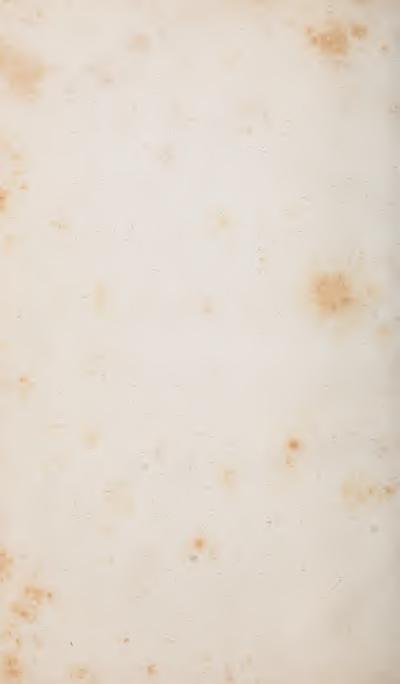
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UNITED STATES OF AMERICA.









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BY SMITH B. GOODENOW,

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By Smith B. Goodenow,

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PREFACE.

When a new work is thrown upon the world, it is rightly expected of the projector, to show that there is need of such an addition to the mass of matter already in print. We will, therefore, introduce this book to the public, by mentioning a few of the important defects, which exist in the prevailing systems of English Grammar, and which render a new attempt upon this already hackneyed subject, at least excusable. Our limits will allow us barely to mention these defects, referring

the reader, for further remarks, to the appendix.

1. The prevailing systems contain many erroneous principles. which serve to disgust the scholar, and which increase the difficulty, while they diminish the usefulness of the study. Such are the following:—that Grammar is a mere art;—that such nouns as love, blessedness, &c. are common; that in the sentence, "What is there here?" there is an adverb of place; that in the sentence, "Whom the coat fits, let him put it on," him is antecedent to whom ;-that you is always plural ;-that a noun may be of the first person;—that nouns connected by and, always require a plural verb; that there are three, and only three, distinctions in regard to sex ;—that a is never to be used before a vowel, and an never before a consonant;—that first, second, &c. are numerals; - that the positive is a degree of comparison; -that an adverb forms part of an adjective; -that the participle is not a mode or manner of representing the verb; -that in the expressions, "He goes," "If he goes," the verb, although of the same form and meaning, is of different modes, -that a verb may be, at the same time, of two modes; as "If I could go;"—that tenses are merely distinctions of time, and therefore, there are six divisions of time;—that the imperative, infinitive, and participial modes, have distinctions of time; -that the potential mode has no futures; -that shall and will are always indicative;—that as, and other such conjunctions, show opposition of meaning; -that the subject of a verb always consists of a single word; -that there are but three cases or relations of substantives;—that the case independent is always of the second person;—that ours, yours, &c. are possessive cases;—that the possessive case is governed by

the following word;—that the comparative always compares two things, and that the latter term of comparison should never include the former;—that infinitives are governed by nouns, conjunctions, &c.—that the infinitive loses its sign after the participles made, seen, heard, &c.—that in the sentence, "I wish you to ride," you and to ride are governed separately;—that in the sentence, "It is to be," to be is governed by is;—that verbs connected by conjunctions should always be of the same mode and tense;—that dozen, hundred, &c. are adjectives; that a may belong to plural nouns; as, "a men;"—that like, unlike, near, up, down, off, &c. are prepositions; &c. &c. &c. All these errors, and many others, are here corrected.

2. The prevailing systems do not contain some important principles and remarks, without which language cannot be analyzed. Every teacher will bear witness, that he finds many constructions, not noticed in our grammars. Most of these omissions, we think, are here supplied. To make this grammar complete, we have thoroughly examined every author on the subject, to whom we could gain access, such as Lowth, Horne Tooke, Murray, Blair, Perry, Prof. Coote, Webster 2, Ingersol 2, Fisk, Brown, Kirkham, Greene, Pond, Wilbur and Bryant, Parker and Fox, Sanborn, Clarke, Alexander, Parkhurst, Dearborn, Frost, Balch, Smith, Clagget, Cobbet, Greenleaf, and several others; and we have endeavored to combine and concentrate the excellencies of them all. We have also, from time to time, consulted some of the best teachers in the State upon doubtful points. Orthography and Prosody, as well as the other parts, are made much more full and practical, than in any of our books.

3. The prevailing systems are too complex and diffuse. Too many unimportant points are brought forward, and too many things are treated in the obscure and obsolete style of the dead languages. This fault we have labored to remove, especially in relation to the verb; while at the same time, we

have aimed to avoid all unnecessary innovation.

4. The prevailing systems are very deficient in classification and arrangement. Critical discussions, notes, questions, and exercises, are all brought together on the same page with the first principles of the language, serving merely to confuse the mind. But here, all criticisms are thrown into the appendix, and the questions and exercises are made the second part of the book, which any teacher may use or not, as he pleases; leaving the principles of the language, arranged in the simplest and clearest manner, and covering but thirty-four small pages, to be studied and referred to at pleasure. These principles are numbered for convenient reference, and the most important are printed with a larger type. The exercises con-

PREFACE.

tain two courses; the first upon the large type, for beginners; the other upon the whole grammar, for more advanced scholars. The language as thus treated, remains no longer, as some represent it, a Babel of confusion, filled up with anomalies and exceptions, and containing the dregs of every tongue; but a fair and simple edifice, convenient in all its parts, and capable of a comparison with the proudest languages of modern times.

The work has been in progress for about five years, and has been taught to persons of all ages, to teachers and to pupils, by all of whom, as well as by those who have carefully ex-

amined it, it has been highly approved.

We suspect the first question with many will be—do you innovate? We answer—we do in some respects. If we did not, if we followed exactly in the steps of our predecessors, we would not trouble the public with a book. As we profess to combine the excellencies of all systems, we can hardly be expected to agree exactly with any one of them. But it is believed, that in those points, upon which we differ most from the common methods, we have the sanction of the ablest critics who have written upon the language; and experience has shown that those points need not cause the least confusion in the minds of those, who have already attended to other systems.

Great pains have been taken in the mechanical execution of the book. Yet a few unimportant typographical and verbal errors will be found in some of the copies; but, less, it is believed, than are commonly found in such works. We do not profess to have attained perfection; for we have found too many errors even in the most pretending systems, to imagine that we are free from defects.

With these remarks, the work is submitted to the public, in the hope that it may be of some service to the cause of common education.

S. B. G.

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TO TEACHERS.

As this work has some peculiarities, it is recommended to the instructor to examine it throughout, before he commences teaching it. If the second part is used, let beginners, and those little acquainted with the subject, commence at the first course, and, when they are familiar with this, proceed to the second. Those more advanced may begin at once upon the second course. Let each recitation be opened with a review of the previous lessons, particularly the last, and closed with a full explanation of the succeeding lesson. In recitation, let each point be carefully explained and illustrated to the comprehension of every pupil, and let nothing be passed over till it is perfectly understood. In parsing, it is far better to go through with a few sentences repeatedly, till the manner of parsing them is familiar, than to wander over a large number of exercises.

In the second course, questions are not given; because in this stage of the study, they are found to be, on the whole, a disadvantage to the teacher, and to the scholars. The teacher insensibly becomes confined to these printed questions, and the scholar often passes over his lesson, repeating a form of words, without any understanding of the subject. Let the teacher ask such questions as he thinks best, and as the circumstances require, and let the pupil be encouraged to give the answers, especially those from the smaller type, in his own language, rather than in the exact words of the book. Then let him parse the corresponding exercises of the first course, and those of the second; after which, he will correct the false

grammar, stating fully his reasons at each step.

** It is found very much to facilitate scholars, to cause them to recite, when it is possible, simultaneously. In this manner, the list of definitives, the conjugation of verbs, the declension of substantives, &c. may be very easily and pleasantly learned. The rules of Syntax also may be divided into measures, and repeated by the whole, the teacher beating the time, as in music. The author has even had a class of fifty, who would parse whole paragraphs simultaneously, according to the table on page 100, without the least discord or mistake.

ENGLISH GRAMMAR.

- 1. English Grammar is the science which teaches the correct use of the English language.
- 2. It has four parts: ETYMOLOGY, SYNTAX, ORTHOGRAPHY, and PROSODY.
- 3. Etymology treats of words, Syntax of sentences; Orthography teaches correct writing, and Prosody correct utterance and the laws of poetry.

I. ETYMOLOGY.

- 4. Etymology treats of words, their different kinds, their changes, and their derivation.
- 5. All words may be divided into four general classes: Substantives, Adjectives, Verbs, and Particles.

6. (1.) Substantives are all words which represent persons,

places, or things, including nouns and pronouns.

7. (II.) Adjectives are all words added to substantives to show how far their signification extends, including Definitives and Descriptives. (59, 72.)

8. (III.) Verbs are all words which serve to make statements,

denoting either being or action.

9. (iv.) Particles are all less necessary words of different kinds, used to show the *nice distinctions of meaning*, including Adverbs, Conjunctions, Prepositions, and Interjections.

10. Thus there are in all nine divisions of words, called parts of speech, — Nouns, Pronouns, Definitives, Descriptives, Verbs, Adverbs, Conjunctions, Prepositions, and Interjections.

I. SUBSTANTIVES.

- 11. Substantives are all words which represent persons, places, or things, including Nouns and Pronouns.
- 12. Nouns are the names of all persons, places, and things; and Pronouns are words used instead of these names.

I. NOUNS.

- 13. Nouns are the names of all persons, places, and things: as, George, Boston, man, multitude, mercy.—
 They are of three kinds,—Proper, Common, and Abstract.
- 14. (i.) A proper noun is the name of some individual object; as, George, Boston, April.
- 15. (II.) A common noun is the name of a whole class of objects; as, man, town, month.
- 16. Some common nouns are called collective, because they denote a collection of objects considered together; as crowd, herd, number, dozen, hundred.

17. We may use a proper noun as common, or a common noun as proper, by prefixing to it some definitive; as, 'He is the Cicero of his age;' 'The sun has risen.'

- 18. (III.) An abstract noun is the name, not of a substance, but of a quality; as, love, justice, weight.
- 19. Many nouns are used sometimes as proper, sometimes as common, and sometimes as abstract; as, 'Thus spake Reason;' 'I gave my reasons;' 'He was deprived of reason.'

II. PRONOUNS.

20. Pronouns are words used *instead of names*, to avoid their too frequent repetition; as, 'George, ask John, if he will assist you.'— They are of two kinds, Personal and Relative pronouns.

- 21. (1.) Personal pronouns are such as show exactly what person is meant. They are six, I, thou, you, he, she, it. (Plurals, we, ye, you, they.)
- 22. The words it and there are frequently used in a rather indefinite manner, and may then be called *Indefinite Pronouns*; as, 'It rains;' 'How is it with you?' 'There is no peace;' 'What need was there of it?' They generally represent some word which comes after them.
- 23. (II.) Relative Pronouns are such as relate directly to other words, and serve to connect sentences. They are three, who, which, and that.
- 24. When which relates to the Adjective that or those, the two words are usually contracted into what, which is hence called a compound relative; as, 'He knows what is right,' or, 'He knows that which is right.'

25. Who, which, and what, frequently have the terminations, so, ever, and soever added to them. They are then called compound relatives, and are equivalent to he who, that which, &c.; as, 'Whoever drinks must die;' or, 'He who drinks must die.' 26. Who, when it asks a question, may be called an Inter-

26. Who, when it asks a question, may be called an Interrogative pronoun. The word to which it relates is then in the

answer; as, 'Who comes here? John.'

27. The word for which a pronoun stands, and to which it relates, if it comes before the pronoun, is called its antecedent; if after the pronoun, its subsequent.

PROPERTIES OF SUBSTANTIVES.

28. To substantives belong person, number, and gender.

I. PERSON.

- 29. (1.) A substantive which represents the *speaker* is said to be of the *first person*. The only word properly of this kind is *I*, (plural, we.)
- 30. (II.) A substantive which represents the person spoken to, is said to be of the second person. The only words properly of this kind are you and thou, (plural, ye.)

- 31. You is used in common style, and thou (plural ye,) in solemn style. (240.)
- 32. (III.) A substantive which represents the person or thing spoken about, is said to be of the third person. This includes all the nouns, and the pronouns he, she, it, (plural they,) and which.
- 33. The pronouns who and that may be of any person, to agree with their antecedents or subsequents. (227.)
- 34. A noun is sometimes put in the second person to denote a direct address; as, 'John, study your lesson.'

II. NUMBER.

- 35. Substantives have two numbers, the singular and the plural. The singular number denotes one object, the plural more than one; as, boy, house, tree, singular; boys, houses, trees, plural.
- 36. Most nouns become plural by the addition of s to their singular; as, boy, house, tree, singular; boys, houses, trees, plural.
- 37. But nouns ending in s. ss, x, sh, ch soft, and o with a consonant before it, take es to form the plural, as, miss, misses; box, boxes; lash, lashes; church, churches; hero, heroes.

38. Nouns ending in y with a consonant before it, change the y into ies; as, beauty, beauties; glory, glories. But not so

when preceded by a vowel; as, day, days.

39. Many nouns ending in single f or fe, change those terminations into ves; as, loaf, loaves; wife, wives; also, staff, staves.

40. The following are irregular plurals: man, men; woman, women; child, children; brother, brethren; ox, oxen; foot, feet; goose, geese; tooth, teeth; louse, lice; mouse, mice; penny,

pence; die, dice.

41. Many nouns from other languages form their plurals as in the original. Thus, um and on are changed into a, is into es, x into icis, us into i; as, stratum, strata; axis, axes; index, indices; focus, foci. The following also are foreign plurals: cherub, cherubim; seraph, seraphim; genus, genera; stamen, stamina; lamina, lamina; beau, beaux; bandit, banditti.

mina; lamina, lamina; beau, beaux; bandit, banditti.
42. Some of the foregoing words have also regular plurals; as, brothers, pennies (coins.) dies (for coining.) appendixes, enco-

miums, indexes (pointers, tables of contents,) geniuses (persons

of genius,) memorandums, cherubs, seraphs, bandits.

43. In compound nouns, that part which is most distinguishing should take the plural; as, basketful, basketfuls; Miss Jones, Misses Jones; son-in-law, sons-in-law.

44. A collective noun has a regular plural number. when the individuals included are to be taken separately, the singular too has the meaning and construction of a plural; as, 'The crowd raise their voices.'

45. Some nouns have no plural; as, butter, wheat, pitch, gold, news, sloth. This is the case with proper and abstract

nouns, used as such.

- 46. Some nouns have no singular; as, bellows, scissors, tongs, embers, oats, clothes, calends, nones, ides, matins, vespers, orgies, amends, lungs, riches, pains, alms, nuptials, optics, &c.; and some from the Latin; as, antipodes, credenda, literati, minutia.
- 47. The relative pronouns have the same form in both numbers. Also some nouns; as, deer, sheep, swine, means, hiatus, apparatus, series, species, hose, wages. A pronoun's number is known by that of its antecedent. (227.)
- 48. Such nouns as the following frequently have the same form in both numbers: dozen, hundred, thousand, fish, herring, head, cannon, sail; as, 'Two hundred barrel of fish;' 'Twenty head of cattle;' 'Ten sail of vessels.'
- 49. The personal pronouns form their plurals thus: I, we; thou, ye; you, you; he, she, and it, - they.
- 50. Two or more singulars connected by and form one plural, unless they mean the same thing, or are to be separately considered; as, 'He and she are two;' 'That philosopher and poet was one;' 'Each doctor and lawyer is one.'

III. GENDER.

- 51. (1.) A substantive which denotes a male, is said to be of the masculine gender; as, king, man, brother.
- 52. (II.) A substantive which denotes a female, is said to be of the feminine gender; as, queen, woman, sister.
 - 53. (III.) A substantive which denotes neither a male

nor a female, is said to be of neuter gender; as, house, tree, month.

- 54. (IV.) A substantive which denotes either a male or a female, is said to be of common gender; as, parent, child, cat.
- 55. The pronoun he is masculine, she feminine, it neuter. I, thou, you, and who, are common, and which and that may be of any gender. But a pronoun is always of the same gender as its antecedent. (227.)
- 56. A collective noun, when the individuals are taken separately, is of the same gender as they are; but when they are taken collectively, it is neuter.

II. ADJECTIVES.

- 57. Adjectives are all words added to substantives, to show how far their signification extends, including Definitives and Descriptives.
- 58. Definitives are words which define, and descriptives are words which describe.

I. DEFINITIVES.

- 59. Definitives are words which define or limit the meaning of substantives; as, a man, the dog, every day, that horse.
- 60. The following are the principal definitives; an, one, another, much, this, that, each, every, either, and neither, singular;—these, those, both, few, many, several, two, three, (&c.) plural;—the, former, latter, own, very, same, some, any, other, all, such, no, none, which, what, first, second, (&c.) of both numbers.

- 61. An becomes a before a consonant sound; * as, a house, a union (yunion,) a one (wun.)
- 62. But not before a word beginning with h and accented on the second syllable; as, an heroic action, an historical poem.

63. These is formed from this, those from that, another from an other, neither from not either, none from no one; yet this last may be used as plural; as, 'None other men.'

64. Like which and what, their compounds are often used as adjectives; as, 'Whichever way you go;' 'Whatsoever

things are lovely.'

- 65. (1.) ARTICLES. This name is given to the words a or an and the, which are very much used to limit nouns. A or an means the same as one, and is called the Indefinite article. The means something like that, and is called the Definite article.
- 66. (II.) DEMONSTRATIVES. This name is given to the words this, that, these, those, former, latter, &c., on account of their definite meaning.

67. (III.) INDEFINITES. This name is given to the words some, one, any, other, all, such, &c., on account of their indefi-

nite meaning.

68. (IV.) DISTRIBUTIVES. This name is given to the words each, every, either, and neither, because they represent things taken one by one. The word many is sometimes so used; as, 'Full many a flower is born to blush unseen.'

69. (v.) NUMERALS. This name is given to the words one,

two, three, four, &c., because they denote number.

- 70. (VI.) ORDINALS. This name is given to the words first, second, third, &c., because they denote order.
- 71. Most definitives may be used with the substantive understood; as, 'Some [people] think that one [thing] is as good as another.' [thing] (147.) (287.)

II. DESCRIPTIVES.

72. Descriptives are words which describe or qualify the meaning of substantives; as, good men, tall trees, eternal wisdom.

^{*} A consonant sound is the sound of any letter except a, e, i, o, and u.

- 73. There are a few words which may be called either definitives or descriptives, such as few, many, much, enough.
- 74. Many descriptives, especially short ones, have three forms to represent different degrees of the quality; as, great, greater, greatest. (83.)
- 75. (1.) The positive form represents the quality in its positive or simple state; as, the tall tree, the wise man.
- 76. (II.) The *comparative* form represents the quality in its comparative or increased degree; as, a taller tree, a wiser man.
- 77. (III.) The *superlative* form represents the quality in its superlative or highest degree; as, the tallest tree, the wisest man.
- 78. The comparative and superlative are formed from the positive, by adding er and est, (or r and st if the positive end in e); as, tall, taller, tallest; wise, wiser, wisest.

79. If the positive end in y, that letter in the other forms is

changed to i; as, happy, happier, happiest.

80. Some superlatives are formed by adding most to their positives, which resemble comparatives; as, former, foremost or first; hinder, hindermost or hindmost; inner, innermost or inmost; outer, outermost or outmost; utter, uttermost or utmost; upper, uppermost; under, undermost; nether, nethermost; so topmost, headmost, &c.

81. The following words have their forms irregular; good, better, best; bad, worse, worst; little, less, least; much or many, more, most. Next and last are superlatives of near and late.

Elder and eldest mean the same as older and oldest.

82. The termination ish is sometimes added to words, forming what may be called the imperfect form; as, whitish, reddish.

- 83. Another common way of expressing the degrees of quality, is by means of adverbs prefixed to the descriptive; as, gentle, more gentle, most gentle, less gentle, very gentle, &c. But double degrees should be avoided; such as, most wisest, betterer.
- 84. Descriptives which in themselves denote fixedness, do not admit of degrees, or of the adverbs more, most, less, least, which express degrees. Thus we should say nearer perfect, not more perfect; nearest round, not roundest.

III. VERBS.

- 85. Verbs are all words which serve to make statements, denoting either being or action; as, 'I am;' 'He studies.' They are of two kinds, Transitive and Intransitive.
- 86. (1.) A transitive verb is one which affects (or plainly may affect) an object; as, 'He studies his lesson.'
- 87. (II.) An intransitive verb is one which does not affect an object; as, 'I am;' 'George walks.'
- 88. The intransitive verb be, (of which am, art, is, are, was, were, been, are variations,) is sometimes called the substantive verb or copula, since it denotes simple existence, and serves to couple terms together.

89. Some verbs may be used either as transitive or as intransitive; as, 'She faded the cloth in the sun;' 'The cloth

faded in the sun.'

- 90. Some verbs, otherwise intransitive, may affect an object signifying the same as themselves or their subjects; as, 'To run a race;' 'He ran himself to death;' 'The curfew tolls the knell of parting day.'
- 91. Auxiliary or helping verbs are those by the help of which the meaning of other verbs is varied, they being considered as parts of those verbs. They are do, have, may, can, shall, will, must; (with their variations did, had, might, could, should, would;) as, 'I do move;' 'I have moved;' 'I shall have moved.'
- 92. The verbs do, have, and will are used also as simple verbs; as, 'I have it;' 'I did it;' 'He willed away his property.'

MODES.

93. Modes are particular forms of the verb, showing the *mode* or *manner* in which the being or action is represented. There are five modes, the *Indicative*, the Po-

- tential, the Imperative, the Infinitive, and the Participial.
- 94. (1.) The indicative mode simply indicates or declares; as, 'I move;' 'I do move.'
- 95. (II.) The potential mode implies possibility, power, will, or obligation; as, 'I may move;' 'I can move;' 'I will move;' 'I must move.'
- 96. There are four ways in which the indicative and potential modes may be used;—1, the affirmative; as, 'I come,' 'I can come.'—2, the negative; as, 'I come not,' 'I cannot come.'—3, the interrogative; as, 'Come I?' 'Can I come?'—4, the subjunctive, or doubtful; as, 'If I come,' 'If I can come.' (188.)
- 97. (III.) The *imperative* mode commands, exhorts, or permits; as, 'Move thou;' 'Do thou move.'
- 98. (IV.) The *infinitive* mode represents the verb in a general and indefinite manner; as, 'To move;' 'To have moved.'
- 99. (v.) The participial mode represents the verb as participating of the nature of an adjective, and is either active or passive.
- 100. A participle active represents a thing as really being or acting; as, 'A body moving, or having moved.'
- 101. A participle passive represents a thing as being acted upon; as, 'The body being moved.' It belongs only to transitive verbs.
- 102. But an intransitive participle, by the addition of a particle, may become a compound passive participle; as, 'You are smiled upon.'
- 103. Infinitives may generally be known by their sign to, and participles by their termination ing. These two modes always have the nature of substantives or of adjectives, and the same relations in sentences. (248, 257.) The other modes are called *finite*, because their meaning is always limited to particular substantives.

TENSES.

- 104. Tenses are particular forms of the verb, showing the *time* and completeness with which the being or action is represented.
- 105. There are three divisions of time, present, past, and future. Each of these divisions has two tenses, a perfect and an imperfect.
- 106. Thus there are six tenses, the imperfect present, the perfect present; the imperfect past, the perfect past; the imperfect future, and the perfect future.
- 107. The imperfect tenses represent the being or action as *unfinished*, and the perfect tenses represent it as *finished*.
- 108. The perfect tenses may be known by their auxiliary have or had, which shows perfection. Thus, I have moved, I had moved, I shall have moved, are perfect; I move, I did move, I shall move, are imperfect.
- 109. The indicative and potential modes have all the six tenses. The other modes have no distinctions, except as perfect or imperfect.

PRINCIPAL PARTS.

- 110. Every verb has three principal parts, (marked 1, 2, 3, in the table,) from which all the other parts are formed.
- 111. From the first principal part the imperfect tenses are formed, from the third part the perfect tenses.
- 112. The second and third parts generally are alike. When they are formed by adding d or ed to the first part, the verb is said to be regular; as, move, moved; walk, walked. Otherwise the verb is called irregular; as, find, found; bleed, bled.
- 113. Naming all the parts of a verb in their regular order, is called *conjugating* it.

114. CONJUGATION OF THE REGULAR VERB MOVE.

	had moved. (3.)											
SCT.	nove	"	33		99	"	23		33		23	99
PERFECT.	had	have "	are		ave	ave	ave		to have		having "	ing
		1	ill h		nd h	nst l	ill h		to h		har	or be
			or u		shoi	or m	or u					moved, or being "
			shall or will have "		might, could, would, should have	may, can, or must have	shall or will have					non
			S	. ^	l, wc	ay, c	S					
_					coule	w						
	<u></u>				ght,							
	3.				mi							
	did move (1.) or moved. (2.)	or move.						ove.				
	or m	or m						or move.				
-	(1,)										50	
IMPERFECT.	one	"	99		33	23	"	99	9,9		moving.	
IPER	id m	do "	shall or will		p_l	may, can, or must	ill	,, op	,, ot		n	
U	q		or w		shou	r mi	or w					
		¥	hall		PAST, might, could, would, should	an, c	shall or will.					
			S		, wo	iy, c	~ ·		ū.			
Œ.)E.	ould	m		DE.	लं	DE.		
MOI				MOI	ht, c			MO	TOD	MO		
H		T,	à	\L	mig	T,		VE	H	AL,	•	6 E
III	PAST,	PRESENT,	FUTURE,	TTL	8'1'8	PRESENT,	FUTURE,	ATI	TIV	CIPI	ACTIVE,	PASSIVE,
INDICATIVE MODE.	PAS	PRI	FU	POTENTIAL MODE.	PAS	PRI	FU	IMPERATIVE MODE.	INFINITIVE MODE.	PARTICIPIAL MODE.	AC	PAS
Z				PO'				IMI	Z	PA		

[17 For numbers and persons, see 240, 241.]

Remarks.

115. Any verb may be conjugated by putting it instead of move in the foregoing table; as, love or do love, loved or did love, &c.

116. But the verb be has several forms in the first two

tenses: - Past, was, were; Present, am, art, is, are.

117. The tenses are frequently variable as to time, especially in the potential mode; as, 'You must go to-night;' 'If I

should go;' 'We leave next week.'

118. The auxiliaries shall and will, when they denote simple futurity, belong to the indicative mode; when they denote determination, they belong to the potential mode; as, 'I shall go;' 'He will go;' indicative; 'I will go;' 'He shall go;' potential.

119. The conjugation of the verb as exhibited in the table, is the common form. It will be perceived that the first two tenses have an additional form with do, did, called the em-

phatic form of expression.

120. To denote continued being or action, we join the imperfect participle to different parts of the verb be; as, 'I am moving;' 'To be moving.' This is sometimes called the participal form of expression.

121. To denote the receiving of an action, we join the passive participle to different parts of the verb be; as, '1 am moved;' 'To be moved.' This is sometimes called the passive

form of expression.

122. The passive participle is generally united to the verb be, but should be parsed separately. It is perfect in form, but is often imperfect in meaning. An active participle is sometimes used as passive; as, 'The house is building.' But this is best avoided.

123. List of Irregular Verbs.

(1.) The following have all the parts alike: rid, burst, cast, cost, thrust, cut, shut, put, hit, spit, split, hurt, let, set, read, shed, shred, spread, knit r, heat r, beat [en], bid [den.]

(2.) The following change the last letter to t to form the second and third parts: lose, lend, rend, send, spend,

bend r, build r, gild r, gird r.

(3.) The following add t: deal, mean, dream r.

(4.) The following change the vowels to e and add t: creep [crept,] sleep, keep, weep, feel, kneel.

(5.) The following change the vowels to e: bleed [bled,] breed, feed, speed, lead, meet, hold, sweat r.

(6.) The following change the vowels to o: shoot [shot,] win, abide, shine r, choose [en,] freeze [en,] weave [en,] tread [en,] get [en], forget [en.]

(7.) The following change the vowels to o and add e:

break [broke-n,] speak, steal.

(8.) The following change the vowels to u: spin [spun.] cling, fling, sling, sting, swing, wring, slink, shrink, dig, stick, strike, string r, hung r. But the following have a instead of u in the second part: run [ran, run,] begin, drink; and the following a or u: sink sank or sunk, sunk,] swim, sing, ring, spring.

(9.) The following change the vowel to ou: bind [bound,]

find, grind, wind.

(10.) The following drop e: chide [chid-den,] hide [en,] stride [en,] slide [en,] bite [en.]

(11.) The following change the termination to ought: buy, [bought,] beseech, bring, fight, seek, think, work [wrought.]

The following also are irregular: catch, caught r; teach, taught; pay, paid; lay, laid; say, said; leave, left; reave, reft; bereave, bereft; sell, sold; tell, told; shoe, shod; flee, fled; have, had; hear, heard; make, made; sit, sat; stand, stood; clothe, clad r.

The following have all the parts different:

Drive, drove, driven; so - ride, rise, arise, smite, write, stride, strive r.

Swear, swore, sworn; so — tear, wear, bear, (bore, borne, to carry; but bare or bore, borne, to bring forth.) Fly, flew, flown; so - grow, know, blow, throw r. Take, took, taken; so - shake, forsake. Come, came, come. Do, did, done. Go, went, gone. BE, WAS, BEEN. Lie, lay, lain. Slay, slew, slain. See, saw, seen. Fall, fell, fallen; Eat, eat or ate, eaten. Draw, drew, drawn. Cleave, clove or cleft, cloven or cleft (to split.) bade, bidden. Give, gave, given.

(14.) Some reg. verbs have an irregular third part sometimes used, ending in n; as, Show, shown; lade, laden; wax, waxen; strow, strown; mow, mown; sow, sown; swell, swollen; grave, graven; load, laden; rive, riven; saw, sawn; shape, shapen; shave, shaven; shear, shorn. Thus also crow sometimes has its second part crew,

awake has awoke, dare has durst.

(15.) In regular verbs ed is frequently, though improperly, contracted into t; as, spelt for spelled, spilt for spilled.

It is most allowable in the passive participle.

(16.) Some verbs have irregular forms not now in good use; as, holpen, bounden, gat, brake, ware, swang, holden, molten, quod.

(17.) A few verbs are defective, that is, have no third part. Such are the auxiliaries may, might; can, could; shall, should; will, would; and the verb ought, ought. Quoth is used only in the second part, must in the first part, and wont as a passive participle.

Note. Those words in the foregoing list which have an r, admit also of the regular form. Those with [en,] have that termination added to the third part, either always, or in some

IV. PARTICLES.

124. Particles are all less necessary words of different kinds, used to show the nice distinctions of meaning, including Adverbs, Conjunctions, Prepositions, and Interjections.

I. ADVERBS.

125. Adverbs are words added to verbs, and sometimes to other words, to qualify their meaning; as, 'It now rains very violently.'

126. Adverbs may be divided into different kinds, thus:

(1.) Of time; as, now, before, already, presently, often, when, ever, &c.

(2.) Of place; as, here, there, where, hither, thither, whither, hence, thence, whence, &c.

- (3.) Of number; as, once, twice, thrice, again, first, secondly, &c. (4.) Of assertion; as, not, truly, indeed, perhaps, &c.
- (5.) Of cause; as, why, wherefore, therefore, whence, how, &c.
- (6. Of manner; as, well, ill, how, prudently, wisely, greatly, &c.
- (7.) Of degree; as, very, quite, exceedingly, so, too, much, rather, &c.

127. Many adverbs are formed from other words; as, wise-

ly, herein, whenever, afoot, &c.

128. A few adverbs have degrees like descriptives: as, much, more, most; soon, sooner, soonest; little, less, least, &c. But double degrees should be avoided,

II. CONJUNCTIONS.

- 129. Conjunctions are words which conjoin or connect words and sentences; as, 'You and he did it, but not properly.'
- 130. The following are the principal conjunctions:—and, if, that, both, then, since, for, because, therefore, wherefore; but, or, nor, as, than, lest, though, unless, except, save, either, neither, whether, yet, notwithstanding, nevertheless.
- 131. When a word in a sentence has the effect both of a conjunction, and of an adverb, it may be called an adverbial conjunction, and qualifies both sentences; as, 'He did it when he pleased.'

III. PREPOSITIONS.

- 132. Prepositions are words *placed before* substantives to show their relation to other words; as, 'He sat with a book in his hand.'
- 133. The following are the most common prepositions:—of, by, at, for, from; in, to, into; on, upon; with, within, without; over, above; under, below, beneath; through, between, among; before, behind, after, beyond; about, beside, against, across.
- 134. The following also are prepositions:—amid or amidst, amongst, round or around, athwart, betwixt, concerning, during, except, excepting, maugre, notwithstanding, since, till or until, touching, toward or towards, throughout, underneath.

IV. INTERJECTIONS.

- 135. Interjections are words which express sudden emotions of the mind; as, O! oh! ah! alas! pish! avaunt! lo! hark! yes! no! hail! &c.
- 136. Interjections were the first cries of man, before speech was invented; so that in proportion as language becomes full and perfect, they disappear. They should be used very seldom and with care.

Phrases.

137. A phrase is the union of two or more words having

the nature and construction of a single word, thus;

138. (r.) A substantive phrase consists of two or more words having the nature and construction of a single substantive; as, 'That you are guilty is evident.' 'She is handsome, and she knows it.' 'I wish you to ride.'

139. (11.) An adjective phrase consists of two or more words having the nature and construction of a single adjective; as,

'A light blue color.' 'The first two stanzas.'

140. (III.) A verbal phrase consists of two or more words having the nature and construction of a single verb; as, 'It is to be.' 'It appears to be.'

141. (IV.) An adverbial phrase consists of two or more words having the nature and construction of a single adverb; as, at

least, not at all, by and by, the more, the better, methinks.

142. (v.) A conjunctional phrase consists of two or more words having the nature and construction of a single conjunction; as, as if, as though.

143. (vi.) A prepositional phrase consists of two or more words having the nature and construction of a single prepo-

sition; as, out of, over against, nearly in.

144. (vii.) An interjectional phrase consists of two or more words having the nature and construction of a single interjection; as, 'Alas to me! I am undone.'

Different uses of the same word.

- 145. Many words may be used either as substantives, as adjectives, or as verbs; as, 'A great calm.' 'A calm day.' 'To calm a storm.'
- 146. Substantives, when they describe, become adjectives; as, waterpail, sugar-loaf.
- 147. Adjectives, when their substantives are understood, may become substantives; as, 'The aged are sedate.' 'All is over.'
- 148. When thus used, descriptives are generally plural, and preceded by the; few, many, and all numerals, have a collective sense; and one, other, former, latter, and comparatives, are

varied like substantives; as, 'The good are beloved.' 'Six is the half of twelve.' 'The many are led on by the few.' 'The little ones.' Others, betters, superiors.

149. Any word, when used as the name of itself, becomes

a noun; as, 'To is a preposition.'

150. An adverb or other part of speech, may become an interjection; as, how! really! strange!

151. A preposition without a substantive becomes an ad-

verb; as, 'To ride about.' 'To give over all effort.'

152. A participle sometimes becomes a preposition; as, concerning, notwithstanding, bating, touching.

153. An adverb is sometimes used as a noun; as, 'From

there to here.' 'It comes from above.'

154. The relative who is used as an interrogative; and the

preposition to is used as the sign of the infinitive.

155. The words which, what, whichever, whatever, &c., may be either relative pronouns or adjectives; as, 'The thing which.' 'Which thing.'

156. The word that may be either a relative pronoun, an adjective, or a conjunction; as, 'He said that he should pun-

ish that boy that did it.'

157. The words else, only, ill, well, much, little, near, &c. may be either adjectives or adverbs; as, 'Who else was there?' 'How else could I do?'

158. The words either, neither, and both, may be either adjectives or conjunctions; as, 'Both men.' 'He both eat and

slept.'

159. The word no may be either an adjective or an inter-

jection; as, 'Can no person go? No! it is impossible.'

160. The word needs may be either a verb or an adverb; as, 'He needs your help.' 'He must needs go through Samaria.'

161. The words but, as, well, yet, still, since, then, therefore, consequently, &c., may be either adverbs or conjunctions;

as, 'He could but go, but he came back.'

162. The words for and but may be either conjunctions or prepositions; as, 'I shall not strive for it, for it is wrong.'

Derivation.

163. All words are either primitive or derivative. A primitive word is one which cannot be reduced to any simpler word in the language; as, good, content. A derivative word is one which is derived from another word; as, goodness, contentment. Words are derived from others in three ways, viz.

164. (1.) Many words are formed by uniting together other words; as, penknife, notwithstanding, another, neither, none, myself, whoever, whenever. Such words are called compounds, and when the parts are inseparable are called permanent compounds.

165. Thus when a substantive is used to describe another substantive, the two words are sometimes united by a hyphen

into one; as, pen-knife, ink-stand.

166. Thus also many adverbs are formed by uniting words; as, hereof, thereto, whereby, therefore [there for.] Many of these are not much used.

167. Thus also many adverbs are formed by prefixing a,

(meaning at, on, &c.,) to nouns; as, ashore, afoot, asleep.

168. Thus also many words are formed by adding so, ever, and soever to other words; as, whoso, whichever, whenever,

wheresoever.

169. Thus also many verbs (and other words,) are formed by prefixing prepositions to other words; as, uphold, intend, overlook. The same effect is produced by putting the preposition (as an adverb,) after the verb; as, to fall on, to cast up. The prepositions are frequently inseparable; as, unthinking, predispose.

170. (II.) Many words are formed by adding new terminations to other words, or by changing the original termina-

tions; as, grand, grandeur; splendor, splendid.

171. Thus many feminine substantives are formed from masculines by changing the termination, generally into ix or

ess; as, administrator, administratrix; priest, priestess.

172. Thus also many substantives are formed by adding ness, ment, dom, ric, hood, ship, age, ity, ite, ate, ret, cy, to other words; as, goodness, contentment, kingdom, bishopric,

piresthood, friendship, hermitage.

173. Thus also many adjectives are formed from substantives by adding some, ly, y, full, less, and ous; as, gladsome, manly, healthy, joyful, joyous, joyless. In this case, ful, y, ous, and some, imply abundance; less, want; and ly, likeness.

174. Thus also some verbs are formed from other words by adding a termination; as short, to shorten; like, to liken;

glad, to gladden.

175. Thus also some nouns are formed from verbs by changing the termination; as, to visit, visiter; to love, lover;

to walk, walker.

176. Thus also many adverbs of manner, and some others, are formed from adjectives, by adding ly, or changing le into ly; as, wisely, gently.

177. (III.) Many words are formed by changing very much the shape of other words; as, long, length; strong, strength; grass, graze; glass, glazier. In this manner words are formed from other languages; as, Etymology from the Greek etymon logos, pronoun from the Latin pro nomen, parlance from the French parler. Thus also, a great part of our present English words, are derived from the ancient Saxon and other languages from which ours originally sprung; as, an from ane (one,) if from gifan (grant.) So that, though many words are now considered primitive, very few will be found to be really so, when traced to their origin.

178. Note. Derivative words often differ much from the meaning to which their primitives would seem to lead; as, therefore, understand, cast un

II. SYNTAX.

179. Syntax treats of sentences, and the proper relation of words in them.

SENTENCES.

180. A sentence consists of any number of words properly arranged.

181. (I.) The *subject* of a sentence is that which is said to be or to act, and consists of a single substantive, or of two or more substantives connected by and; as, 'The boy studies.' 'The boy and girl are diligent.' (50.)

182. (II.) The attribute of a sentence is the being or action which is attributed or applied to the subject, and consists of a single finite verb, (or sometimes of the verb be with another word;) as, 'The boy studies.' 'The boy and girl are diligent.'

183. (III.) All the words and clauses in a sentence which describe the subject, may together be called the description of the subject; as, 'The diligent boy studies.' 'The man of true honor is always respected.'

184. (IV.) All the words and clauses in a sentence which explain the attribute, may together be called the explanation of the attribute; as, 'The boy carefully studies his lesson.' 'It is very unhealthy in the city the present season.'

185. Thus all the parts of a sentence are four; the

subject with its description, and the attribute with its explanation. But any sentence is perfect, if it have only a subject and an attribute. If either of these is wanting, the sentence is called imperfect. Thus,—' The dog barks,' is perfect; 'The towering hills of my native land,' is imperfect.

186. A perfect sentence is either simple or compound.

187. (1.) A simple sentence is one which has but one subject and one attribute; as, 'The boy studies.' 'The boy and girl are diligent.

188. A sentence may assume five forms, affirmative, nega-

tive, interrogative, subjunctive, imperative. (96, 97.)

189. (1) An affirmative sentence simply affirms. (11.) A negative sentence denies, and is formed by inserting a not in an affirmative sentence; as, 'I can go.' 'I cannot go.'

190. (III.) An interrogative sentence is used to ask a question, and its subject follows the attribute; as, 'Can I go?'

Whither goest thou?

191. (IV.) A subjunctive sentence is subjoined to another sentence. It generally expresses uncertainty, and contains a conjunction if, though, &c.; as, 'If I could go.'

192. (v.) An imperative sentence commands, exhorts, or permits; and its subject generally follows the attribute, which is in the imperative mode; as, 'Go thou.' 'Come ye.' All the other kinds of sentences may be either indicative or potential.

193. (II.) A compound sentence consists of two or more simple sentences united, usually by conjunctions; as, 'Life is short and death draws near.'

194. One sentence is sometimes contained within another, as a description or explanation of it; as, 'The man who did this, ought to suffer.' This constitutes what may be called a

complex sentence.

195. The members of a sentence are the longer portions separated by colons or semicolons, clauses are smaller portions separated by commas; as, 'The ox knoweth his owner, and the ass his master's crib; but Israel doth not know, my people doth not consider.' Here are two members, each of which consists of two clauses.

196. Separating a sentence into its parts, as above, is

called analyzing it, and should precede the parsing of a sentence.

197. Parsing consists in stating all that we know concerning the grammar of a word, and its relation to other words.

RELATIONS OF WORDS.

198. In uniting words into sentences, we should give them such relations to each other as to convey exactly the idea intended. These relations, being founded upon the nature of the human mind, are nearly the same in all languages, and are established by the usage of the best writers in each particular tongue. The following are the principles derived from the established practice of *English* writers.

I. RELATIONS OF SUBSTANTIVES.

199. The relation of a substantive in a sentence is called its case. There may be reckoned in English four different cases, or relations of a substantive, called the subjective, the possessive, the objective, and the absolute cases.

RULE I.

200. The Subjective Case Denotes the Subject of a verb; as, 'The boy studies.' 'The boy and girl are diligent.'

RULE II.

201. The possessive case denotes a possessor, and describes the thing possessed; as, 'Joseph's hat.' 'Your book.'

RULE III.

202. THE OBJECTIVE CASE DENOTES THE OBJECT OF A PREPOSITION OR TRANSITIVE VERB; as, 'George studhis lesson in school.'

RULE IV.

203. The absolute case denotes a substantive when alone, or independent of other words; as, 'The *crops* failing, the *farmers*—what will become of them?'

Of this case there are four uses:

204. (1.) With a participle, to denote some attending circumstance; as, 'He failing, who shall succeed?'

205. (II.) To denote a direct address; as, 'Come here,

John.

206. (III.) With an exclamation; as, 'Oh horrors!' 'Oh

deep enchanting prelude to repose.'

207. (iv.) To denote a mere name or title; as, 'Rule iv,' Gad, a troop shall overcome him.' Bible.

Form of the cases.

208. Nouns have the same form in all their cases, except the possessive, which is formed by adding an apostrophe and s ['s] to them; as, subjective, &c., man, possessive, man's; plural, subjective, &c., men, possessive, men's.

209. But if the plural end in s, or the singular in ss, ce, and sometimes s, the apostrophe alone is generally added;

as, horses' heads, for peace' sake, Achilles' wrath.

210. A complex possessive, or different possessives connected, have the sign upon the last word only; as, 'William, Henry, and Edward's boat.' 'The king of England's crown.'

211. Sometimes we find the possessive of a possessive; as, 'My wife's brother's son.' But it is better avoided; thus,

'The son of my wife's brother.'

212. When the adjectives one, other, former, and latter, are used as substantives, they may have the possessive case: as, one's interest; others' concerns.

213. The 's is a contraction of his, and was formerly writ-

ten in full; as, 'William Russell his book.'

214. Most of the *pronouns* have their possessive and objective cases irregular in form, as follows:

	Singular.				Plural.			
		SUB	. & AB.	Pos.	OBJ.	SUB. & AB.	Pos.	OBJ.
			I,		me;	we,		us.
onal.	2.	COM.	you, thou,	your, thy,	you; thee;	$\left. egin{array}{c} you, \ ye, \end{array} ight\}$	your,	you.
Pers	3.	MAS. FEM. NEU.	he, she, it,	his, her, its,	him; her; it;	they,	their,	them.
Relative.	COM ANY ANY	GEN. GEN.	who, which, that,	whose,	whom which that;	who, which, that,	whose,	who. which. that.

Note.—Telling all the different forms of a substantive, as above, is called *declining* it.

215. Instead of repeating a possessive case, and the noun it describes, we generally use the words mine, thine, hers, ours, theirs, to represent both. These may therefore be called compound possessive pronouns, in the subjective or objective case; as, 'This is my book, and that too is mine,' (my book.)

216. Mine and thine are sometimes used for my and thy, be-

fore a vowel sound; as, mine honor.

217. When the possessive cases my, our, &c., come before the noun self, the two words are united into one, which may be called a compound personal pronoun; as myself, ourselves, &c. But we always write himself, itself, themselves, instead of hisself, itself, theirselves.

RULE V.

- 218. Substantives in the same relation must be in the same case.
- 219. (i.) Substantives connected by conjunctions are in the same relation; as, 'The boys and girls study;' 'He or his friend did it.'
- 220. But we always use whom after than; as, 'Washington, than whom,' &c.

221. (II.) Substantives applied to the same thing, and introduced in the same manner, are in the same relation; as, 'Cicero, the orator, lived in Rome;' 'I, John, study.'

222. Substantives thus coming together in the same case,

are said to be in apposition.

223. Substantives connected by conjunctions sometimes are in apposition; as, 'That philosopher and poet was banished;' 'Love, and love only, is,' &c.

224. A singular is sometimes in apposition with a plural, to explain it; 'They every one were there;' 'They love each

other:' 'Ye are one another's joy.'

225. A substantive in the possessive case may be in apposition without the sign; as, 'His brother Philip's wife.'

226. (III.) Substantives applied to the same thing, and connected by an intransitive verb, are in the same relation; as, 'He is the Cicero of his age;' 'Man walks a slave.'

RULE VI.

227. A PRONOUN MUST AGREE WITH ITS ANTECEDENT OR SUBSEQUENT IN PERSON, NUMBER, AND GENDER; as, 'He who did it, knew his duty.'

228. Who relates only to persons, which to animals and things; but that may relate to persons, animals, or things; as, 'The man who;' 'The dog which;' 'The thing that.'

229. Animals and things are frequently personified, or represented as persons; and then the pronouns must be applied

accordingly; as, 'The sun rises in all his splendor.'

230. As there is no personal pronoun of common gender in the third person singular, the other genders are made to supply its place; as, 'Whoever does his duty will prosper;' Doth the hawk stretch out her wings?' We saw the deer, and killed it.'

231. When a pronoun is preceded by different persons, it may agree with either, according to the sense; as, 'I am the

man who command, or who commands.'

232. Throughout a sentence, the same pronoun should be applied to the same person or thing; as, 'If thou wilt come, thou wilt be well received.'

SYNTAX.

35

II. RELATIONS OF ADJECTIVES.

RULE VII.

233. Every adjective must agree (in number) with its substantive, expressed or understood; as, 'A large, sweet apple;' 'Each (individual) loves its like' (individual.)

234. Adjectives sometimes belong to other adjectives; as,

'A light blue color;' 'The first two stanzas.'

235. Much never refers to number, and such never to degree. The following expressions are incorrect: 'Much men were present;' 'Such great houses.' Either and neither always refer to one of two things, every to one of more than two, and each to one of any number. The following are incorrect; 'Either of the three;' 'Every one of the two.'

236. This, these, and latter, always refer to the things nearest or last mentioned; that, those, and former, to the things farthest or first mentioned; as, 'Self-love is ruled by reason; that makes men active; this, active to some good purpose.'

237. The comparative compares two things, the superlative more than two, and they are both connected by of to the latter term of comparison, which must include the former; as, 'He is the taller of the two, but you are the tallest of all.' Otherwise the comparative compares any number of things, and is connected by than to the latter term of comparison, which must not include the former; as, 'He is shorter than all the rest.'

238. Definitives are joined only to common nouns, or to nouns used as such, because other substantives are sufficiently definite without them. But definitives which do not imply number, may be joined to abstract nouns; as much virtue, such virtue. Judgment and practice must teach when nouns are to

receive a definitive.

III. RELATIONS OF VERBS.

RULE VIII.

239. EVERY VERB MUST AGREE (in person and number) WITH ITS SUBJECT; as, 'The boy studies;' 'The boy and girl are diligent.'

- 240. (1.) To agree with thou, the indicative and potential modes (or their first auxiliary) must be made to end in st or t; as, 'Thou dost or didst walk;' 'thou hast or hadst walked;' 'thou shalt, wilt, must, mightst, couldst, wouldst, or shouldst walk, or have walked.'
- 241. (II.) To agree with the third person singular, the indicative present (or its auxiliary) must be made to end in s or th; as, 'He (&c.) walks, or walketh, does walk, or doth walk, has walked, or hath walked.'
- 242. But the verb ought does not vary for the third person; nor does the verb need always; as, 'He ought to go;' 'He need not go.'
- 243. But the verb be has its first two imperfect tenses irregular, thus: Past, I was, thou wast, he (&c.) was, in other cases were; Present, I am, thou art, he (&c.) is, in other cases are. The emphatic form is not used, and the rest of the imperfect is regularly be.
- 244. Had is sometimes used for would have, and were for would be, or should be if doubt is implied; as, 'It had been well for us, had we gone;' 'It were a pity were he thus disgraced.

245. Every subject should have an attribute, and every attribute a subject, expressed or plainly implied. The following

is incorrect: 'He, where is he?'

246. If a verb have a subject before, and another after it, it may sometimes agree with the latter instead of the former; as, 'A great cause were the restraints,' &c. When a verb follows several subjects, it should agree with the nearest; as, 'I or thou didst it.' (293.)

247. Always in the use of verbs, the relations of time must be duly observed; thus, 'The Lord gave, and the Lord hath taken away;' not, 'The Lord hath given, and the Lord hath

taken away.'

RULE IX.

248. Infinitives are used as substantives, but may have objects like other modes; as, 'To injure others is wrong.'

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- 249. (I.) An infinitive may be a singular subject; as, 'To lie is base.'
- 250. (II.) An infinitive, with or without a substantive, may be the *object* of a transitive verb; as, 'I wish to ride;' 'I wish you to ride.'
- 251. When an infinitive is the object of bid, feel, hear, let, make, see, dare, (to venture,) and a few other verbs, the sign to is generally omitted; as '1 bade him do it.' But after the passive participle the to should be used; as, 'He was bidden to do it.'

252. When an infinitive refers to a time subsequent to that of the preceding verb, it should be imperfect not perfect; thus, 'I expected you to go ;' not, 'I expected you to have gone.'

- 253. (III.) An infinitive may be the object of a preposition, expressed or understood; as, 'He went for to worship;' 'I wish for you to ride;' 'He is about to go;' 'I will labor (for) to do it.'
- 254. Infinitives which follow intransitive verbs, nouns, or adjectives, are generally the objects of prepositions expressed or understood. The preposition for was formerly expressed before the infinitive, but is now generally understood.
- 255. (IV.) An infinitive may be in the absolute case; as, 'To tell the truth, I was there.'
- 256. The copula to be may describe the subject of an intransitive verb, thus forming a verbal phrase, (140,) which agrees with that subject; as, 'It appears to be right;' 'He thinks to be respected.' (See also 298.)

RULE X.

- 257. Participles are used as substantives or descriptives, but may have objects like other modes; as, 'I am studying grammar.'
- 258. When an active participle is followed by of, it should be preceded by a definitive or possessive case, but not otherwise; as, 'The taking of the city;' 'Much depends on observing this rule.'

259. Some passive participles, like their active, may have an object; as, 'He was asked his opinion;' 'I was desired to

go.'

IV. RELATIONS OF PARTICLES.

RULE XI.

260. Adverbs qualify verbs; adverbs of degree may qualify adjectives and other adverbs; as, 'Very good boys study very diligently.'

261. The verb which an adverb qualifies, is frequently understood; as, 'But [I say] truly, they will come;' 'Say first, of

God [who is] above; 'Away! old man.'

262. An adverb sometimes qualifies a preposition; as nearly in, almost across; and sometimes a noun; as, 'He ran almost a mile;' 'The almost Christian;' 'Things here are mine.'

263. In poetry, the termination ly is frequently dropped from an adverb, making it like the adjective from which it is derived; as, 'Wild play the winds about his mountain home.' This should not take place in prose. But exceedingly should always lose the ly before a word ending in ly; as, exceeding wisely.

264. Two negatives are equivalent to an affirmative; as,

"Nor did he not do it;" that is, "He did it."

265. When motion is implied, the words hither, thither, whither, are preferable to here, there, where. The following are

incorrect; 'Come here;' 'Go there.'

266. A verb which signifies merely being, or a state of being, should generally have an adjective rather than an adverb connected with it; as, 'He is cold:' 'He looks cold.' But we say, 'He looks coldly upon it;' as looks here denotes action.

RULE XII.

267. Conjunctions connect words and sentences of the same kind; as, 'John and William are coming, but they will soon return.'

268. Both is always followed by and, and lest by the potential mode. Than is always preceded by a comparative, or the word else, other, or rather. The conjunctions if, though, although, unless, save, because, since, &c. are generally prefixed to subjunctive sentences, to connect them to the main sentence, without which they cannot be used.

269. Some particles correspond to each other, so that if one is used, the other is expressed or understood; whether—or; neither—nor; such—as; such—that; as—as; as—so; so—as; so—that; though—yet; both—and. In this case, the two con-

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junctions together connect, and, if possible, the same words must follow each; thus, 'Either the boy or the girl;' not 'Either

the boy or girl.'

270. Verbs connected by conjunctions should generally be of the same mode and tense; or the subject should be repeated. The following is incorrect: 'Professing regard, and to act differently, discovers a base mind.'

RULE XIII.

- 271. Prepositions show the relation between their objects and other words; as, 'He sat with a book in his hand.'
- 272. The prepositions to, into, unto, &c., imply motion, and are opposed to from; at, in, within, &c., imply situation; of implies origin or possession; for implies purpose; with implies connection or means; by implies cause; between has reference to two objects; among or amidst to a greater number.

273. Particular words require to be followed by particular prepositions, and generally the same preposition should follow a derivative word as follows its primative. We should not say, 'Reconciling himself with the king,' but, 'to the king.'

RULE XIV.

274. Interjections, and the words connected with them, are independent of the rest of the sentence; as, 'Wo to me! I am undone.'

Position.

- 275. In the common, natural position of words, the subject is placed before the attribute, the adjective before its substantive, the definitive before the descriptive, the pronoun after its antecedent, and the preposition before its object; as, 'The great oak which stands on the hill.'
- 276. But in imperative and interrogative sentences, and in many other cases, the subject follows the verb or the first aux-

iliary; as, 'Will you go?' 'Go thou;' 'Were I there;' 'Here am I.'

277. In many other respects the common order may be deviated from; as, 'A number large enough;' 'Many a man;' 'Whom you see, him respect.'

278. When two qualities belong to the same noun, the more distinguishing should be made the nearer; as, 'A good old

man; not, 'An old good man.'

279. No word should ever be placed between the sign to and the infinitive mode. The following is incorrect: 'To

willingly do it.'

- 280. Words nearly related should be placed as near to each other as possible; a relative pronoun to its antecedent, an adverb to the word qualified, a possessive case to the word described, a preposition to its object, &c. The following are incorrect: 'It is reported to-morrow that the king will come.' 'John's (that I spoke of) book.'
- 281. Transposition is a change of arrangement in the parts of a sentence, and is very common, especially in poetry; as,

'Achilles' wrath, to Greece the direful spring Of woes unnumbered, Heavenly Goddess, sing.'

Transposed. 'Heavenly Goddess! sing Achilles' wrath, the direful spring of unnumbered woes to Greece.'

Ellipsis.

- 282. Ellipsis is the omission of any of the words necessary to the full construction of a sentence. The following are the most common cases:
- 283. To avoid repetition, many words are generally omitted in uniting sentences, and in similar cases; as, 'The boys read and [the boys] write.' 'A fine garden and [a fine] orchard.'
- 284. After the collective nouns dozen, hundred, few, many, &c., of is frequently understood; as, 'A hundred [of] sheep; 'Every hundred [of] years constitutes a century;' 'A great many [of] men.' But when a pronoun follows, the of is always expressed; as, 'A great many of them.' (148.)

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285. The time, place, direction, quantity, &c., are frequently in the objective, with a preposition understood; as, 'He is

coming [to] home [on] to-day.'

286. A transitive verb is frequently followed by two objectives, one of them being the object of a preposition understood; as, 'He lent [to] me some money;' 'He asked [from] me the news.'

287. The antecedent of a pronoun is sometimes understood;

as, '[He] who steals my purse steals trash.'

288. Adjectives and possessive cases frequently belong to substantives understood; as, 'The [river] Thames;' 'Turn to the right' [hand]; 'At the Alderman's [house.]' (147.)

289. There are generally many words understood in the answer to a question; as, 'Who was there?' 'John' [was there.] 290. After the adjectives worth and worthy, a preposition is

frequently understood; as, 'It is worthy [of] your regard;' 'It is worth [—] a dollar.'

291. After the words like, unlike, and near, to is frequently understood; 'This is like [to] that, but it is not near [to] it.'

292. The subject of the imperative mode is generally un-

derstood; as, 'Guide [thou] my lonely way.'

generally understood after all but the last; as, 'He or she did it.' 293. When subjects are connected by or or nor, the verb is

294. The auxiliaries may, can, should, &c., are frequently understood; as, '[May] soon dawn the day of peace.' The

mode of the verb should not then be mistaken.

295. In subjunctive sentences, the conjunction or the auxiliary is frequently understood; as, 'Were I there;' that is, 'If I were there; 'If thou [shalt] go.' The auxiliary is best omitted when both doubt and futurity are implied, but not otherwise.

296. When a substantive is absolute with a participle, some of the words may be understood; as, '[We] generally speaking, they are poor; '[He being] conscious of his strength, nothing was feared.'

297. After the adverbs off, up, down, &c., a preposition is frequently understood; as, 'He jumped off [from] the fence, and went up [over] the hill.'

298. After the conjunctions than, as, but, &c., some words are generally understood; as, 'I am as tall as you' [are]; 'I am taller than he' [is]; 'Will you be so good as to come?' [implies]; 'He knew better than to do that', [is]; 'Such as [those are who] prefer it; 'We have more than [that is which] will suffice; "He acted as [he would act] if he were mad.

299. Adverbs frequently qualify verbs understood. (261.) The sign to of the infinitive is frequently understood. (251.)

The Three Errors.

300. (I.) Using too few words, or improper ellipsis, especially of words which serve to connect; as, 'Who is not convinced [that] he must die?' 'I scarcely know of anything [which] would suit me better.'

301. (II.) Using too many words, or tautology; as, 'A board

of six feet long; 'But and if that evil servant,' &c.

302. Thus one word is sometimes improperly used with another which implies that word; as, from whence; to whither; return back; converse together; fall down; enter in; first of all; new beginning; 'They returned back again to the same city from whence they came forth.' This last sentence should be, 'They returned to the city whence they came.'

303. (III.) Using the wrong words; as, had rather, for would rather; had better, for would better; go past, for go by; ruler, for rule; them, for those; lest, what, or how, for that; firstly, for first; good deal, for great deal; to let, for to be let, &c. Thus also, some confound ever and never, later and latter, such and so,

further and farther, no and not, effect and affect, &c.

304. Thus also, adjectives and adverbs are sometimes con-

founded; as, 'A far country;' for, 'A distant country.'

305. Thus also, transitive and intransitive verbs are sometimes confounded; as, lie and lay, sit and set, learn and teach, grow and cultivate.

306. Thus also, errors are committed in the use of the different parts of irregular verbs; as, 'He begun,' for 'He be-

gan;' 'I done it,' for 'I did it.'

307. When different methods of expression may be used, that should be adopted which will sound best, and most clearly convey the sense. We should say, 'The severe distress of the king's son;' not, 'The severity of the distress of the son of the king.' We should say, 'He reads land writes, but does not cipher; not, 'He readeth and writeth, but doth not cipher.'

III. ORTHOGRAPHY.

308. ORTHOGRAPHY teaches the correct writing of the language by means of established signs.

LETTERS.

- 309. A letter is a written sign used to represent some simple sound of the human voice.
- 310. Human or articulate sounds are produced by an emission of voice through the mouth, modified in many cases by the action of the lips, teeth, tongue, &c., which are called the organs of speech.
- 311. There are in the English language about thirty-five simple sounds, and by different combinations of these, all words are expressed.
- 312. These thirty-five simple sounds are represented by twenty-four letters only, as some letters represent more than one sound.
- 313. These thirty-five simple sounds may be divided into vowel and consonant sounds.
- 314. (i.) The *vowel* sounds are those which can be perfectly uttered by themselves. They are thirteen in number, and are represented by the letters a, e, i, o, u, and sometimes w and y.

315. The vowel sounds are produced by an emission of voice through the mouth, without any interruption in its course. They may be divided into long, short, and open vowels.

316. (i.) The long vowels are uttered with the mouth nearly closed, the sound being prolonged. They are four, \bar{a} , \bar{e} , \bar{u} long, as heard in the words fate, mete, note, tube.

317. (II.) The short vowels are uttered with the mouth nearly closed, the sound being cut short. They are five, ă, ĕ, ĭ, ŏ,

ŭ short, as heard in the words fat, met, pin, not, tub.

318. (III.) The open vowels are uttered with the mouth opened more widely, the sound being somewhat prolonged. They are four \hat{a} , \hat{e} , \hat{o} , \hat{u} open, as heard in the words far, \hat{e} r, \hat{r} r, full. They are frequently followed by the letter r, into whose sound they slide.

- 319. (II.) The consonant sounds are those which cannot be uttered unless joined to a vowel. They are twenty-two in number, and are represented by the letters b, c, d, f, g, h, j, k, l, m, n, p, q, r, s, t, v, x, z, and sometimes w and y.
- 320. The consonant sounds are produced by an emission of voice through the mouth, with more or less interruption from the organs of speech. They may be divided into labials, dentals, palatals, nasals, linguals, and the asperate.

321. The *labials* are produced by the interruption of the *lips*, and are six in number, b, p, f, v, m, and w, as heard in the

words bib, pap, fife, valve, mum, wo.

322. The dentals are produced by the interruption of the teeth, and are eight in number, d, t, th soft, th hard, sh, zh, s, z, as heard in the words did, trot, this, thin, shape, azure, stress, craze.

323. The palatals are produced by the interruption of the tougue against the palate, and are three in number, g hard, k,

y, as heard in the words gag, kick, yet.

324. The nasals are produced by the interruption of the voice so as to pass through the nose, and are two in number, n

and ng, as heard in the words nun and sing.

325. The linguals are produced by the interruption of the tongue bent upwards, and are two in number, l and r, as heard in the words lull and roar. They have a peculiar facility of uniting with other vowels before them; as, bl, cl, fl, gl, pl, rl, sl, br, cr, dr, fr, gr, pr, tr.

326. The aspirate is the letter h, which is produced by sim-

ply breathing hard before other sounds; as, at, hat.

Remarks.

327. W and y are consonants at the beginning of syllables, and vowels elsewhere. W, when a vowel, is silent or sounds like u, and y sounds like short i or long e.

328. Such consonants as can be sounded imperfectly without a vowel, are called *semi-vowels*; such as cannot be sounded at all without a vowel, are called *mutes*.

329. A compound sound is the union of two or more simple sounds. Such are the following: Compound i or y has the sound of $\hat{a}-\hat{e}$, as in pine, rhyme—compound u has the sound of $\hat{e}-\bar{u}$, as in mute—oi or oy has the sound of $\hat{o}-\bar{e}$, as in boil, boy—ou or ow has the sound of $\hat{a}-\bar{u}$, as in sound, bow. Qu (which are always together,) have the sound of $k\bar{u}$ or k, as in queen, opaque. K has the sound of K or K as in six, example—Ch has the sound of K or K as in church, chorus—K or soft K or K as in church, chorus—K or soft K or K as in church, chorus—K or soft K or K as in church, chorus—K or soft K or K as in church, chorus—K or soft K or K as in church, chorus—K or soft K or K as in church, chorus—K or soft K or K as in church, chorus—K or soft K or K as in church, chorus—K or soft K or K as in church, chorus—K or soft K or K as in church, chorus—K or soft K or K as in church, chorus—K or soft K or K as in church, chorus—K or soft K or K o

has the sound of dzh, as in judge.

330. Some letters sometimes have the sound of others. Thus a sometimes sounds like δ , as in call; au like δ , δ , as in hautboy, laurel; c like k, as in can; c like s, as in cent, (this is always the case with c before e, i, or y;) ch like sh, as in chaise; d like t, as in stuffed; e like \hat{a} , \check{v} , \check{v} , as in sergeant, England; eau like δ , as in beau; ei, ey, like \check{a} , as in vein, convey; eo like \check{u} , as in dungeon; f, ph, like v, as in of, Stephen; g like j, as in giant, (this is generally the case with g before e, i, or y;) gh, ph, like f, as in laugh, Philip; i like \check{e} , \check{v} , as in machine, first; ia like ya, as in filial; n like ng, as in thank; o like \check{u} , \check{u} , as in move, son; oo like \check{u} , \check{u} , as in room, blood, good; p like b, as in cupboard; s like z, as in his; t like ch, as in nature; t, s, c, like sh, as in nation, invasion, ocean; u like \check{e} , \check{v} , as in bury, busy; ue like eu, as in hue; wh like hw, as in when; x like z, as in Xanthus.

331. Letters are sometimes entirely silent; thus, i, u, w, y, silent after a, as in pail, taught, bawl, pay; a, o, i, silent before e, as in anigma, fatus, grief; e silent in a final syllable, as in open; e silent always at the end of a word, unless it is the only vowel, as in me, and used thus to lengthen or soften the syllable, as in rag, rage, pin, pine; a, i, o, y, silent after e, as in appear, people, seize, key; e silent before a, as in bear; a, e, silent after i, as in carriage, die; ie silent before u, as in lieu; a, e, u, w, o, silent after o, as in boat, broad, doe, though, cough, brought, snow, door; o silent before u, as in enough, youth; i silent after u, as in juice; u silent before a, e, i, y, as in guard, guest, guide, buy; ue silent after q, g, as in antique, dialogue; b silent with another consonant, as in climb, debtor; c silent, as in victuals; ch silent, as in schism; g silent before n, as in gnash; h silent after g, r, t, a vowel, and sometimes at the beginning of words. as in ghost, rheum, Thomas, hah, hour; k silent before n, as in knell; n final silent after m, as in hymn; p silent before s, t, as in psalter, tempt; ph silent, as in phthisic: s silent, as in isle, viscount: w silent before r and after o as in wrist, grow.

332. A syllable consists of one or more letters, forming a simple or compound sound, and pronounced by a single impulse of the voice; as, a, an ant.

383. Two vowels coming together in a syllable, are called a dipthong; as hail, beat. If both vowels are sounded, as oi, ou, eu, and a few others, it is called a proper dipthong, otherwise, an improper dipthong. Three vowels coming in the same syllable, are called a tripthong; as, beau.

334. When vowels come together, not in the same syllable, they may be distinguished by a dieresis, (") as, aërial, coöpe-

rate.

II. WORDS.

335. A word consists of one syllable, or more, pronounced in succession, and used, by common consent, as the sign of some idea.

336. A word of one syllable is termed a monosyllable; a word of two syllables, a dissyllable; a word of three syllables, a trissyllable; a word of four or more syllables, a polysyllable.

337. It is sometimes required to divide words into their syllables. The syllables are then separated by a hyphen (-) according to the following rules:

(I.) Every entire, simple word should be separated; as, ice-

house, over-power, good-ness, in-stil, what-ever.

(II.) Grammatical terminations are generally to be separated; as, teach-est, teach-eth, teach-ing, teach-er, great-er, bless-ed.

(III.) Every syllable must have a vowel, and no syllable more than one, unless there be a dipthong, or a silent vowel; as,

wis-er, cru-el, boil, tame.

(IV.) Every long syllable should (if possible) end with the vowel, and every short syllable with one consonant; as, de-light, fee-ble, da-ting, ra-ted, con-strain, dis-tract, noth-ing, nev-er.

(V.) Double letters should be separated; as, mel-low, mor-

row, can-not.

III. SPELLING.

- 338. Spelling is the art of expressing words by their proper letters.
- 339. English spelling is very irregular and difficult to be learned. But the following rules, well committed, will assist considerably.

RULE I.

- 340. In monosyllables, f, l, or s final, preceded by a single vowel, is doubled; as, staff, mill, pass. Except if, of, as, has, gas, was, yes, is, his, this, us, thus.
- 341. Other final consonants are never doubled; except in add, odd, ebb, egg, inn, bunn, err, purr, butt, buzz.

342. Words of more than one syllable do not end with double l.

RULE II.

343. A consonant preceded by a dipthong or a long vowel, is never doubled.

RULE III.

- 344. A single consonant after a single, accented vowel, is doubled before an additional vowel; as, wit, witty; rid, ridden.
- 345. In other cases the consonant is not doubled; as, toil, toiling; visit, visited.

RULE IV.

- 346. Double l generally becomes single before an additional consonant; as, skill, skilful, skilless. Except illness, skrillness, stillness.
 - 347. Other letters do not become single; as, oddly, stiffness.

RULE V.

348. E final must be added to a single consonant preceded by a single long vowel; as, fate, ride, brave. (337, IV.)

RULE VI.

349. Final e is omitted before an additional vowel, but before a consonant it is retained; as, rate, ratable; pale, paleness.

350. Except awful, duly, truly, wholly, agreement, and some-

times abridgment, judgment, lodgment, acknowledgment.

351. Ce and ge are preserved before a and o, to keep the soft sound; as, peace, peaceable; change, changeable. Ee is preserved before ing or able; as, seeing, agreeable. Ie is changed to y before ing; as, die, dying.

RULE VII.

- 352. Final y, when preceded by a consonant, is changed into i, before any additional letter but i; as, pity, pities, pitied, pitiful, pitying.
- 353. When preceded by a vowel, it is not changed; as, day, days.

RULE VIII.

354. Compound words are spelled like their simples; as, hereof, recall.

355. But in permanent compounds, double l generally becomes single; as, handful, always.

Remark.

356. H, i, j, k, q, u, v, w, x, y, are never doubled. Q is always followed by u; as, queen. U need not be placed between o and r; as candor, not candour. K need not be placed after c final, except in monosyllables; as cambric, brick.

IV. ABBREVIATION.

357. Abbreviation is the art of expressing words in a shorter than their usual form, for the sake of brevity and despatch.

358. Abbreviations are either contractions of the words, such as Capt., Cr., or the initial letters, such as \mathcal{N} . S., P. M., or merely some arbitrary signs, such as \mathcal{E} , \mathcal{E} c.

359. Abbreviations should not be much used, and very

seldom in writing to distinguished individuals.

CLASSES OF ABBREVIATIONS.

- 360. (1.) To represent numbers by Roman characters. I, one; V, five; X, ten; L, fifty; C, one hundred; D, five hundred; M, one thousand.
- 361. As many times as a letter is repeated, the value is repeated; as, II, two; XXX, thirty.

362. A letter before a greater, is to be taken from its value;

as, IV, four; IX, nine; XC, ninety.

- 363. A letter after a greater, is to be added to its value; as, VI, six; XI, eleven; CX, one hundred and ten.
- 364. (II.) To represent numbers by Arabic characters. 1, one; 2, two; 3, three; 4, four; 5, five; 6, six; 7 seven; 8, eight; 9, nine; 0, nought.
- 365. An Arabic character is increased tenfold in value at every place it is removed toward the left; as, 3, three; 30, thirty; 300, three hundred.
- 366. (III.) To represent Mathematical expressions; as, (≡) equal to; (—) minus, less, or subtract; &c.
- 367. (iv.) To represent measure of capacity; as, Gi. gill; pt. pint; qt. quart; gal. gallon; pk. peck; &c.
- 368. (v.) To represent measure of length; as, na. nail; qr. quarter; yd. yard; Fl. e. ell Flemish; in. inch; ft. foot; (°) degree; (') minute, or prime; ('') second, &c.
- 369. (vi.) To represent weight; as, wt. weight; oz. ounce; lb. pound; cwt. hundred weight; T. ton, &c.
- 370. (VII.) To represent time; as, s. second; min. minute; h. hour; d. day; mo. month; Y. year, &c.
- 371. (VIII.) To represent money; as, E. eagle; \$ dollar; ct. cent; d. dime; m. mill; £ pound; s. shilling, &c.
- 372. (IX.) To represent musical expressions; as, P. piano, soft; PP. pianissimo, very soft; F. forte, loud, &c.
- 373. (x.) To represent grammatical expressions; as, sing. singular; plu. plural; ind. indicative, &c.
- 374. (XI.) To represent names of persons; as, Jas. James; Jos. Joseph; Chs. Charles; Geo. George, &c.

375. (XII.) To represent books of the Bible; as, Gen. Genesis; Ex. Exodus; Lev. Leviticus; Jud. Judges, &c.

376. (XIII.). To represent names of Countries, States, Cities, &c.; as, Me. Maine; Vt. Vermont; Oo. Ohio, &c.

377. (XIV.) To represent titles and offices; as, A. A. S. Fellow of the American Academy; Bart, Baronet, &c.

V. PUNCTUATION.

378. Punctuation is the art of supplying writing with proper stops and marks, to assist in determining the sense.

379. The marks most used are those which denote pauses, viz. the comma, (,) a short pause; the semicolon, (;) a longer pause; the colon, (:) a still longer pause; and the period, (.) a full and perfect pause.

RULE. I.

380. Every parenthetic word and clause should be separated from the context by commas; as, 'Paul, the apostle of the Gentiles, was eminent for his zeal; 'He, in his youth, was trained to labor.'

381. By parenthetic words and clauses, is meant such as have anything of the nature of a parenthesis. Of this kind are

the following:

382. (I.) A common parenthesis. The comma must be placed before the parenthesis marks, and sometimes semicolons may be used; as, 'Charles, (that was his name,) did as I bade him.'

383. (II.) Words and clauses in the absolute case; as, 'He, his limbs being weary, sat down to rest;' 'Continue, my friend,

to do thus;' 'I was, to tell the truth, in the house.'

384. (III.) A clause in apposition, or a word in apposition, if it be quite distinct; as, 'Napoleon, Emperor of France, died a slave.' But, 'George Ingalls, the tanner.'

385. (IV.) All descriptive and explanatory clauses, unless quite short; as, 'It is not the West, with her forest sea and her inland isles, with her luxuriant expanses, clothed in the verdant corn, with her beautiful Ohio, and her majestic Missouri.'

386. (V.) Generally all such expressions as these; nay, so, hence, again, first, secondly, formerly, now, lastly, once more, above all, on the contrary, in the next place, in short, &c.

RULE II.

387. When more than two particulars are enumerated, they should be separated from each other by commas; as, 'A free, educated, peaceful, Christian people;' 'A man fearing, loving, and serving his Creator.'

388. Two particulars, if long, or if a conjunction is understood, must be separated; as 'The glittering march of armies, and the reveling of the camp:' 'That long, dark night.'

389. If the particulars are in pairs, the pairs only should be separated; as, 'Truth is pure and artless, simple and sincere,

uniform and consistent.'

390. A comma may be inserted after the last particular, if there is much of a pause; as, 'The husband, wife, and children, all suffered severely.'

391. If the particulars be long, semicolons may sometimes

be used.

RULE III.

- 392. All simple sentences, unless short and closely connected, should be separated by commas, semicolons, colons, or periods, according to their distinctness; as, 'He knew not what to do. He seized his hat, and rushed from the house; for his spirit was troubled within him.'
- 393. Also, if the subject be far from the verb, a comma may be placed before the latter; as, 'The everlasting hills of the imperial city, still tower aloft.'

394. Also, a long subjective or objective clause may be separated from the rest of the sentence by a comma; as, 'To

be totally indifferent to praise, is a defect.'

395. Also, when words are omitted, or a contrast is expressed, a comma is inserted; as, 'Though deep, yet clear; though

gentle, yet not dull.'

396. In separating sentences, judgment and practice must determine whether a comma, a semicolon, a colon, or a period, is to be used. The colon need seldom be employed, and only in long sentences. The colon or semicolon is usually put before an example or quotation; as, 'There are twelve months, viz:—'

OTHER CHARACTERS.

- 397. Every abbreviation, title of a subject, and number of a division, should be followed by a period; as, N. B.; Geo. L. Rogers, Prov. R. I.; Jan.; IV.
- 398. An Interrogation mark (?) is placed at the end of a question; as, 'Who will accompany me?'
- 399. This mark should not be used when it is merely said that a question was asked; as, 'The Cyprians asked me, why I wept.
- 400. An Exclamation mark (!) is placed at the end of sudden exclamations and addresses; as, 'Alas! what a horrible fate!'
- 401. When an exclamatory expression is repeated, the mark may be doubled, tripled, &c.; as, Raising his hands, he cried, lost! lost!! lost!!!
- 402. When an expression has the nature both of a question and of an exclamation, the exclamation mark should generally be used; as, 'How much vanity in the pursuits of men!'
- 403. A dash (—) is used at a sudden pause or change of subject; as, 'Here lies the great-false marble, where?
- 404. The dash, and other characters, are also used to denote an omission; as, Mr. J ____ n, 1-18 __ ****. They must not be used too much.
- 405. The Parentheses () are used to enclose whatever does not properly belong to a sentence; as, 'Charles, (that was his name,) did as I bade him.'
- 406. Brackets [] are used for nearly the same purpose, generally to enclose what is put in by another than the author.
- 407. Quotation marks ("") are used to enclose whatever is quoted just as it was uttered; as, "The proper study of mankind is man."

408. A quotation within a quotation should be denoted by single marks; as, "His words were-'I am a dying man.' " In this book quotations are thus denoted.

- 409. An Apostrophe (') is used when one or two letters are omitted, especially to mark the possessive case of nouns; as, 'tis for it is; tho' for though; e'en for even; man's, James'.
- 410. A Hyphen (-) is used to connect the parts of compound words, and to divide a word at the end of a line; as, 'lap-dog, self-love, to-day, labor-saving, commencement.
- 411. A word must be divided only between the syllables, and the hyphen placed at the end of the line. (337.)
- 412. A Caret (^) is used, in writing, beneath where an omission is supplied; as, 'To-day thine.'
- 413. A Brace () is used to connect different things under one head.
- 414. A *Dieresis* (") is used to distinguish two vowels which are not in the same syllable; as, aërial, coöperate. (334.) A *Cedilla* (.) is used to denote the soft sound of a letter; as, receive.
- 415. The marks (--^) are used to denote the different sounds of vowels; the long, the short, the open vowels; as, fate, fat, far. (315.)
- 416. The marks (''`) are used to denote the different slides in reading; 'the rising,' the falling, the circumflex, the monotone. (477.)
- 417. The Paragraph (¶) and Section (§) denote a change in the subject.
 - 418. A Hand () points to some important passage.
- 419. The star, (*) the dagger, (†) the double dagger, (‡) the parallels (||) the section, (§) paragraph, (¶) &c., together with figures, and the letters of the Alphabet, are used to refer to notes at the margin or bottom of the page.

VI. CAPITALS.

It is necessary to begin with a capital,

420. (i.) The *first word* of every book, chapter, letter, note, or any piece of writing, and every line of poetry.

- 421. (II.) The first word after a period, and after an interrogation or exclanation mark, if the parts be quite distinct; and after a semicolon at the beginning of a quotation.
- 422. (III.) All Proper names and Adjectives, all words applied to the Deity, and the words I and O; as, John, Rome, Roman, Red Sea, Esquire, Reverend, Congress, Baptist, Monday, Deity, O, here I am.
- 423. (IV.) Every principal word in the heading of a book or article, and indeed any very *important* or *emphatic* word.
- 424. These words, in printing, are frequently expressed entirely in capitals.

VII. TYPOGRAPHY, &c.

425. English is written in the common round or square hand, sometimes in the perpendicular and back-slope hands.

426. English is printed commonly in Roman letters, (like the last line,) frequently in *Italic letters*, sometimes in **Div**English, sometimes in Strugg Sext, and sometimes

in various ORNAMENTAL styles.

427. The common sizes of type are-

Pica, Small Pica, Long Primer, Bourgeois, Brevier, Minion, Nonpareil, Pearl.

428. Paper folded so as to make two leaves to a sheet, is called folio; four leaves, quarto; eight leaves, octavo or 8vo; twelve leaves, duodecimo or 12mo; eighteen leaves, 18mo. This book is duodecimo.

429. The divisions and subdivisions of any work are in general nearly in the following order: Volumes, Books, Parts,

Chapters, Divisions, Articles, Sections, Paragraphs.

430. When a writing contains divisions and subdivisions, they may be numbered as follows; the largest divisions by Roman characters, (I, II, III,) the next by Arabic characters, (1, 2, 3,) the next by capital letters, (A, B, C,) the next by small letters, (a, b, c.)

431. When there is an important turn in the thought, a new

paragraph should be commenced, and only then.

432. Emphatic words are denoted in printing by Italic letters, or by capitals, and in writing by being <u>underscored</u> or written in back-slope.

433. A date should be written above the right hand, except in a diary, where it is written at the left, and in some billets

and notes, where it is written beneath the left hand.

434. The title of a piece should be written over the middle. A name should be signed under the right hand.

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IV. PROSODY.

435. Prosody teaches the correct utterance of the language, and the laws of poetry.

I. UTTERANCE.

- 436. Utterance may be considered in two parts, pronunciation and modulation.
- 437. Speaking and reading depend upon the same principles, except that action is wanting in the latter; and the best general rule for reading is, to read as we naturally converse.

I. PRONUNCIATION.

438. Pronunciation teaches the proper utterance of single words, and may be treated under the heads of Articulation, Stress, and Slides.

I. ARTICULATION.

439. Articulation is the distinct utterance of sounds by the human voice.

440. Articulate, or human sounds are first produced by the forcing of wind through the glottis, a small opening in the upper part of the windpipe, and are afterwards modified by the action of the organs of speech in the mouth. (310.)

441. (I.) Sounds may be either high or low. This depends upon the width to which the glottis is opened, and gives rise to

nielody.

442. (II.) Sounds may be either loud or soft. This depends upon the force with which the wind is emitted, and is called the force.

- 443. (III.) Sounds may be either long or short. This depends upon the time during which the wind is emitted, and is called the rate.
- 444. Practising the voice will extend its power, as to pitch, as to quantity, and as to length; and will also serve to correct any defects of articulation which habit may have produced.
- 445. The elementary or simple sounds of the language, have been explained in Orthography. Upon these the voice should be frequently practised.

Defects of Articulation.

- 446. (1.) Defects in the organs of speech, such as the palate, teeth, tongue. Such defects can seldom be fully removed; but careful practice will, in most cases, do much towards it. The case of Demosthenes is familiar to all.
- 447. (II.) Stammering. This arises either from want of control over the nerves, from excitement, or from habit, and may generally be removed by some practice.
- 448. (III.) Difficulty in sounding some particular letter, as s, (called *lisping*.) This, in general may be easily corrected.
- 449. (IV.) Indistinctness, owing to the nose being too much closed, (improperly called 'speaking through the nose.')
- 450. (v.) Indistinctness, owing to the mouth being too much closed.
- 451. (vi.) Weakness of voice, owing to want of effort in uttering sounds.
- 452. (VII.) Too great slowness, or a hesitating and blundering utterance, owing to want of practice in reading.
- 453. (VIII.) Too great rapidity, especially in pronouncing long words, so as to render a part of the syllables imperceptible; as, p'rem't'r'ly, for peremptorily.

- 454. (ix.) An obscuring of the sound of short vowels and syllables; as, pr'vent for prevent, reb'l for rebel.
- 455. (x.) Giving too much importance to short vowels and syllables; as, ev-un for even, wick-ud for wicked.
- 456. (XI.) Sounding more letters than are in a word; as, criticisum for criticism, lawr for law, perize for prize.
- 457. (XII.) Neglect to sound consonants plainly, especially at the close of words; as, an' for and, inspec' for inspect, w'en for when.
- 458. (XIII.) Neglect to repeat difficult sounds which occur in succession; as, the battle last till, for the battle last still.
- 459. (xiv.) Giving an incorrect sound to letters and words; as, bile for boil, wust for worst. This is to be corrected chiefly by means of the dictionary, and comes under the head of Orthoepy.

II. STRESS.

460. Stress is the peculiar force with which some syllables are pronounced, in order to distinguish them from others, and is either accent or emphasis.

I. Accent.

- 461. Accent is the stress which is laid upon one syllable of every word, by which it is made *louder* than the rest; as, *dis-ap-pear'*.
- 462. The uses of accent seem to be—first, to distinguish words from each other—and secondly, to give an opportunity for new emissions of sound at suitable intervals from each other.

463. For this reason, when several monosyllables succeed each other, one or more of them must have an accent; as, 'I shall go' to-day'.'

464. Long words in many cases, besides the regular accent, have a secondary accent on some other syllable; as, referee', rep'resen'tative.

465. The syllable on which the accent shall be placed, is

determined by custom; but errors are frequently committed in

the placing of the accent; as de'tail for detail'.

466. When the same word is of different parts of speech, they are frequently distinguished by different accent; as, con'-vert, convert'; des'ert, desert'.

II. Emphasis.

- 467. Emphasis is the *strengthening* of the accent on particular words, to distinguish them from others less important.
- 468. An emphatic syllable should be pronounced not only louder, but generally longer than others. There are different degrees of emphasis, both as to loudness and as to length; and since it depends upon relative and not upon absolute sound, there may be emphasis, even in a whisper.

469. Want of sufficient emphasis on important words, is a common fault with readers and speakers, and often destroys the whole meaning of a passage; as, 'Paul had determined to sail by Ephesus,' instead of 'Paul had determined to sail by

Ephesus.'

470. But in avoiding this fault, care must be taken not to emphasize too many and unimportant words, or to fall into a measured or singing emphasis; as, 'He is the' man of' all the' world, whom' I re'joice to' meet.'

471. Yet small words may sometimes become most important, and then require an emphasis; as, 'Then said the high

priest, are these things so'?'

- 472. Rule I. All words which are in *contrast* with each other, must be emphasized; as, 'It is not so difficult to *talk* well, as to *live* well.'
- 473. Sometimes one part of a contrast is understood; as, 'You wronged yourself to write in such a cause,'—'as well as others,' understood.

474. The contrast sometimes changes the proper place of the stress; as, 'He must in'crease, but I must de'crease.'

- 475. Rule II. Words not in contrast, when they are quite important to the sense, should be emphasized; as, 'Up, comrades—up.'
- 476. Sometimes several words in succession are to be emphasized, forming an *emphatic clause*; as, 'If-Rome-must-fall—yet we are innocent.' Sometimes several particulars follow each other, each of which is to be emphasized; as, 'They have beaten us, openly, uncondemned, being Romans.'

III. SLIDES.

- 477. Slides are the peculiar inclinations of the voice with which syllables with a stress are uttered.
- 478. These slides are of different lengths, according to the length of the stress. In accent they are hardly perceptible, in common emphasis they are quite plain, and in intense emphasis they are very long and distinct.
- 479. There are four slides, the rising, falling, circumflex, and monotone.
- 480. The rising slide, (marked ') begins at the usual pitch, and turns the sound upwards; as, 'Did you speak

- 481. The falling slide (marked ') begins above the usual pitch, and turns the sound downward; as, 'Yes, I
- spoke to you'. you'.
- 482. The circumflex (marked) unites the falling and rising in the same syllable; as, ' $Y_{0}u$, $y_{0}u$, $y_{0}u$, are very wise.'
- 483. The monotone, (marked -) continues the sound on the same tone throughout; as, 'He rode upon a cherub and did fly.'
- 484. When short syllables follow a slide, they are continued upon the same tone on which the slide ends; as, peremp'torily.

Use of the Slides.

- 485. Rule I. When words are in *contrast*, the first has the *rising*, and the last the *falling* slide; as, 'It is not so difficult to talk well, as to live well.'
- 486. Rule II. A question that can be answered by yes or no, ends with the rising slide, other questions with the falling; as, 'Is it yoù?' 'Who are yoù?'
- 487. Rule III. Tender emotion inclines to the rising slide; and strong emotion, such as exclamation, denun-

ciation, command, to the falling slide; as, 'Jesus saith unto hér, Máry.' 'Hènce! hencè, you idle creàtures.'

- 488. Rule IV. The pause of suspension, denoting that the sense is unfinished, requires the rising slide; but the final pause, denoting that the sense is finished, requires the falling slide; as, 'His father dying, he took possession of the estate.'
- 489. RULE V. The falling slide is to be used in many cases, besides at the end of sentences; especially in emphatic repetition, or succession of particulars; as, 'Charity suffereth long, and is kind; charity envieth not; charity vaunteth not itself,' &c-
- . 490. RULE VI. For the sake of variety, the last pause but one in a sentence usually has the rising slide; as, 'Charity seeketh not her own; is not easily provoked, thinketh no evil.' This is sometimes the case with the final pause.
- 491. Rule VII. The circumflex is used in doubtful and sarcastic expressions; as, 'They tell us to be moderate; but they, they, are to revel in profusion.'
- 492. Rule VIII. The monotone is used in solemn and dignified discourse, but must not be employed too frequently.

II. MODULATION.

493. Modulation teaches the proper management of the voice in the utterance of whole sentences and discourses, and may be treated under the heads of melody, force, and rate.

I. MELODY.

494. Melody is founded on the distinction of sounds as *high* or *low*, and teaches a proper modulation in this respect.

- 495. In delivery, as in singing, there should be a constant variation of tones, which proceed upon the same principles, and may be denoted in the same manner.
- 496. There are three kinds of melody, major, minor, and uniform.
- 497. (i.) Major melody consists of a variety of full and swelling tones, and is used in all common discourse, and earnest utterance; as,

'Spèak, gràve stárless

starless shine, tal of e and the shall the por ter

day.'

498. Minor melody consists of a variety of half-tones, with half-tone slides, and is used in *soft* and *plaintive* discourse; as,

for those who
There is a calm weep, A rest for weary pilgrims found.

499. Uniform melody consists of a succession of notes on the same pitch with *monotone* slides; and is sometimes used in *solemn* and *dignified* discourse; as,

'I saw a great white throne, and him that sat on it.'

Faults in Melody.

- 500. The most frequent fault is a too common use of the *uniform* and *minor* melodies, when the *major* is required. The *uniform* particularly is seldom to be used, and for but few words at a time.
- 501. But in avoiding this fault, some persons give too much variety, using a *jumping* manner, without much regard to sentiment; as,

Lin sun all lay,' &c.
'On den low, less

the was blood

502. Another fault consists in uniformly beginning high,

and gradually descending towards the close of the clause, or sentence, and then commencing high again; as,

vain here false, fair.'

How are be and low; yet things how how

Compass and Pitch.

503. Compass of voice is the distance which it can move from the highest to the lowest tone, and is different in different persons. In nothing will practice effect more than in this, and in nothing do delivery and singing more assist each other.

- 504. Pitch of voice is the prevailing tone on which any performance is uttered, and may be divided into three kinds; the high pitch, used in calling to a person at a distance, or in very earnest utterance; the middle pitch, used in common conversation, and in most delivery; and the low pitch, used in soft or solemn discourse. We may use any of the melodies on any of these pitches.
- 505. Rule I. A subject should usually be begun with the middle pitch, so that the voice may rise and fall as it proceeds.
- 506. But if a subject commence remarkably bold or solemn, a higher or lower pitch may be adopted.
- 507. Rule II. As the sentiment changes, especially at the beginning of new subjects, the pitch should be changed.

Cadence.

508. At the close of a complete thought, whether there be a period or not, the voice should fall below its usual pitch. This is called *cadence*.

509. But in interrogative sentences, and in a few other cases, the voice rises; as, 'You were paid to fight against Al-

exander, not to rail at him.'

510. There are different kinds of cadences. Sometimes the voice comes down gradually, as the steps of a ladder; and sometimes it comes down suddenly upon the last syllable; and sometimes in other ways.

- 511. At the close of a whole subject, the cadence should be lower and fuller than usual.
- 512. It is a common fault, not to make full and complete cadences.

II. FORCE.

- 513. Force in delivery is founded on the distinction of sounds, as loud or soft, and teaches a proper modulation in this respect.
- 514. Persons are apt to confound force with melody, and if they are told to speak loud, they think they must speak high. But there is a great difference.
 515. It will be remembered that accent and emphasis are a

louder utterance of particular syllables and words.

- 516. But in putting a force upon sounds, there must be a fulness and clearness, as well as loudness of tone, to make it agreeable and affective.
- 517. There should be constant variety of force in different parts of the same performance, and the sound should be adapted to the sense.
- 518. Plaintive delivery requires soft tones; bold and declamatory discourse requires full and swelling tones.

III. RATE.

519. Rate of delivery is founded upon the distinction of sounds, as long or short, and the pauses between the sounds-and teaches a proper modulation in these respects.

Length of Sounds.

520. It will be remembered that syllables with a slide are sounded longer than others. The sound may be prolonged to any extent, and often great force is added by dwelling on a single syllable.

521. In prolonging syllables, the vowels are the parts to be dwelt upon, and long or open vowels are peculiarly adapted to

this purpose; as, hate, harm.

522. In solemn and dignified discourse, the sounds should be prolonged; in lively and brisk discourse, they should be cut short.

II. Pauses.

- 523. Pauses answer two purposes; first, to give the speaker opportunity to take his breath; and secondly, to make the sense more obvious to the hearers. The breath should be drawn after every four or five words, so that it may be slight and not perceptible.
- 524. A pause must be made at all periods, colons, semicolons, commas, interrogation and exclamation marks, and dashes; but the exact length depends upon the sense.
- 525. Many pauses must be made where there are no marks, but short, and not between words closely connected by Syntax.
- 526. Plaintive emotions either suppress the voice entirely, or cause it to be uttered with many pauses.
- 527. A pause should frequently be made after emphatic words, and in some cases a long suspension of voice will produce great effect.
- 528. At a change in the subject, a pause should be made longer than usual, to denote the change, and to rest the voice.
- 529. The effect of delivery depends much more upon melody and rate, than upon force; and with proper management the softest tones will command attention.

II. POETRY.

530. Poetry in its construction differs from prose, in having its accents placed at regular intervals, so that it may be adapted to singing, and measured in beats.

- 531. Poetry is of two kinds, blank verse and rhyme.
- 532. Rhyme is a correspondence in the sound at the close of different lines. It is generally more stiff, and less adapted to forcible and sublime sentiments than blank verse.
- 533. In all poetry, the accents are made to fall either upon every *second* or upon every *third* syllable. Hence there are two kinds of poetic measure, *double* and *triple* measure.
- 534. Two or three syllables together are sometimes called a foot, because in measuring, they may be denoted by a beat of the foot. There are reckoned eight different kinds of feet, or ways of reckoning syllables, viz:

FOUR OF TWO SYLLABLES.

Trochee, accent on the first syllable; as, háteful. Iambus, " " last " as, betráy. Spondee, " " both " as, pále móon. Pyrrhic, " " neither " as, on the.

FOUR OF THREE SYLLABLES.

Dactyl, accent on the first syllable; as, possible. Amphibrach, " " second " as, delightful. Anapæst, " " last " as, contravéne. Tribrach, " " none; as, nu||merable.

I. DOUBLE MEASURE.

535. Double measure has every second syllable accented. If the even syllables are accented, it is called Iambic measure; if the odd syllables are accented, it is called Trochaic measure.

536. These names are taken from the feet to which they correspond.

I. IAMBIC MEASURE.

537. Iambic measure has all the *even* syllables accented. Its lines are of different lengths as follows:—

Of 3 syllables; as, 'Disdaining, Complaining, Consenting.' Of 4; as, 'What place is here! What scenes appear!' Of 5; as, 'Upon a mountain, Beside a fountain.'

Of 6; as, 'Once more before we part.'

Of 7; as, 'When shall the voice of singing?' Of 8; as, 'Loud swell the pealing organ's notes.' Of 9; as, 'Tis sweet to think of one above us.'

Of 10; as, 'A héap of dúst alone remains of thée.'
Of 11; as, 'The Lord is good, His mercy never ending.'

Of 12; as, 'For thou art but of dust; be humble and be wise.'

II. TROCHAIC MEASURE.

538. Trochaic measure has all the odd syllables accented. Its lines are of different lengths, as follows:-

Of 3 syllables; as, 'Túmult céase, Sink to peace.'

Of 4; as, 'On' the mountain, By' a fountain.'

Of 5; as, 'Save me from my foes.' Of 6; as, 'When our hearts are mourning.' Of 7; as, Bid my anxious féars subside. Of 8: as, 'When I tread the verge of Jordan.'

Of 9; as, 'I'dle after dinner in his chair.'

Of 10; as, 'All' that walk on foot or ride in chariots.'
Of 11: as, 'Splendid in the glorious arch of heav'n above.'
Of 12; as, 'On' a mountain, stretched beneath a hoary willow.'

II. TRIPLE MEASURE.

339. Triple measure has every third syllable accented. If the accent begin with the first syllable, the measure is called Dactylic; if with the second syllable, it is called Amphibric; if with the third syllable, Anapæstic.

I. DACTYLIC MEASURE.

540. Dactylic measure has the first, fourth, seventh, &c., syllables accented. Its lines are of different lengths, thus :-

Of 3 syllables; as, 'Willingly, Killingly.' Of 4; as, 'Willingly hé.' Of 5; as, 'High on the mountains.' Of 6; as, 'High o'er the heavens above.' Of 7; as, 'Solitude where are thy charms.'

Of 11; as, 'From the low pleasures of this fallen nature.' &c.

II. AMPHIBRIC MEASURE.

541. Amphibric measure has the second, fifth, eighth, &c., syllables accented. Its lines are of different lengths, thus:-

Of 3 syllables; as, 'Disdaining, Complaining.'

Of 4; as, 'Disdainingly, Complainingly.'

Of 5; as, 'Disdainingly he.'

Of 6; as, Disdainingly smiling.' Of 7; as, Disdainingly eyeing him.'

Of 8; as, 'Oh, sólitude, where are thy chárms.' &c.-

III. ANAPÆSTIC MEASURE.

542. Anapæstic measure has the third, sixth, ninth, &c., syllables accented. Its lines are of different lengths, thus :--

Of 3 syllables; as, 'But in vain They complain.'

Of 4; as, 'On the mountain.'
Of 6; as, 'But no arts could avail.'
Of 7; as, 'But no arts could avail him.'

Of 9; as, 'Oh ye woods, spread your branches apace.' Of 12; as, 'May I govern my passions with absolute sway.' &c.

Remarks.

543. The different kinds of Triple measure are very much alike, and may be changed into each other quite easily.

544. Short syllables are frequently slurred over, an apostrophe being generally inserted; as, 'Innum'rable before th' Almighty's throne; murm'ring, 'tis, many'a.

545. In Iambic measure, Trochees, Spondees, and Pyrrhuses

sometimes take the place of Iambuses, especially at the beginning; as,

'Murm'ring and with him fled the shades of night.' 'That on weak wings from far pursues his flight.'

546. Many monosyllables may be either accented or unaccented, according to their situation. But some cannot be accented at all; as, a, the, of.

547. It is a defect in English, that many long words cannot be used in poetry, on account of the accent; as, impetuosity,

magnanimity.

548. In music a line of four syllables is sometimes called

4's; of five syllables, 5's; of six syllables, 6's, &c. Ten syllable lambics are called heroic lines, and twelve syllable lambics

are called Alexandrines.

549. Different kinds of measure are suited to different subjects. The *Triple* is more flowing and easy than the *Double*. Short lines are more lively than long ones. *Iambic* measure, especially *heroic* is more used than any other.

STANZAS.

- 550. A stanza, (sometimes called a verse,) is any number of lines, containing all the different kinds of lines in the piece.
- 551. A couplet is two adjacent lines, in rhyme with each other. A triplet is three such lines.
- 552. Stanzas are of different kinds, according to the kind and arrangement of the lines. The most common are called *common*, *short*, *particular*, *hallelujah*, &c.
- 553. Common metre stanzas consist of four lambic lines; one of eight, the next of six syllables. They were formerly written in two fourteen syllable lines.

554. Short metre stanzas consist of four Iambic lines; the

third of eight, the rest of six syllables.

555. Particular metre stanzas consist of six Iambic lines; the third and sixth of six syllables, the rest of eight.

556. Hallelujah metre stanzas consist of six fambic lines; the last two of eight syllables, and the rest of six.

557. Long metre stanzas are merely the union of four Iambic lines. They sometimes consist of six lines.

THE READING OF POETRY.

- 558. Poetry should generally be read in a more swelling and flowing manner than prose.
- 559. In common lines a pause should be observed, as near as possible to the middle, which is called the *cæsural* pause; as,
 - 'Warms in the sun, || refreshes in the breeze, Glows in the stars, || and blossoms in the trees.'

560. But the pause must be so placed as not to injure the sense; as,

'I sit, || with sad civility I read.'

561. In most lines, a slight pause should be observed at the end, even if there is no mark; as,

'——Thus with the year
Seasons return; || but not to me returns

Day, || or the sweet approach of even or morn.

562. A stress should not be placed on syllables which do not allow it, merely to mark the measure; as,

'False eloquence, like the prismatic glass,' &c.

563. Vowels which are slurred over should be pronounced in reading, but it should be slightly.

APPENDIX;

CONTAINING

NOTES, CRITICAL AND EXPLANATORY.

THE FIGURES REFER TO THE PRECEDING TEXT-BOOK.

GRAMMAR.

1. Grammar, like arithmetic, is both a science and an art. As an art, it consists in the right use of language. But as a science it consists of a system of principles and rules which teach that art, but are not the art itself. Philosophical Grammar explains the principles which are common to all languages, and which, being founded on the very nature of the mind, are more extensive than is frequently supposed. Particular Grammar applies these general principles to a particular language, adapting them to the practice of the best writers by whom it is used. It is with the particular grammar of the English language that we have now to do.

"Grammar is the science of language."—Kirkham's Grammar. The English language was originally formed from the Saxon, which, with other tongues, was founded upon the ancient Gothic. The Saxons, coming from Germany in the fifth century, took possession of the South of England, and gave rise to the present language. In the ninth century, the Danes, from Denmark, began to trouble England; and from that time we can trace the progress of the language by writings which remain. In the eleventh century, the Danes gained possession of the country, and, though they reigned but a short time, produced some effect upon the language. In the same century, the Normans took the country, and endeavored to introduce their language, (the Norman-French.) They did not succeed in this, but a large number of Norman words and phrases were thus incorporated into the previous Saxon language; and it continued to improve, till at about the thirteenth century, it may be called English, though so different from the modern

English, as to be scarcely intelligible to us. Since that time it has gradually improved, by the addition of words from the Greek, Latin, French, Italian, Spanish, and German, and by the more regular arrangement of its disorderly parts. It is now probably as copious and forcible a language as any that is spoken, and is still receiving constant accessions from those foreign sources.

Most of the words of a language have no real connection with the ideas which are attached to them, but are merely used by common consent as signs of these ideas. The same word has many ideas attached to it; so that the number of words is far less than the number of ideas to be conveyed. In English the number, after deducting proper names, and variations of

other words, does not exceed forty thousand.

ETYMOLOGY.

5—10. Words have been generally divided into the nine parts of speech merely. Pursuing very nearly this arrangement, we have added another and more general classification into four classes, the benefits of which will be obvious. It brings together parts of speech which are similar, and thus produces clearness and comprehensiveness in the study. It simplifies the language of Syntax, and is a principle means of reducing the common number of general rules, (from twenty-three to sixty,) down to fourteen. Upon the propriety of the names adopted, we offer the following—

6. "Substantive, in grammar, the part of speech which expresses something that exists, whether material or immaterial."—Webster.

7. "Adjective, in grammar, a word used with a noun, to express a quality of the thing named, or something attributed, or to limit or define it, or to specify or define a thing as distinct from something else."—Webster. "Adjective, a word added to a substantive," &c.—Murray et al. Such, too, is the Etymology of the word. Adjective pronouns, (as they are commonly called,) are certainly adjectives. But why should the articles be excluded? Are they not added to substantives? Is not the as much an adjective as that? Accordingly, we reckon adjective pronouns and articles as one kind of adjectives, under the name of definitives, and other adjectives are called descriptives, to distinguish them. "The, an adjective or definitive adjective."—Webster. "An is a mere adjective."—Webster. "That is a word used as a definitive adjective."—Webster. And so of all other words. "Definitive, in grammar, an adjective used to

define or limit the extent of the signification of an appellative or common noun."—Webster. See also Fisk's Murray. "In a scientific arrangement of grammatical principles, a and the belong to that class of adjectives denominated definitives or restrictives.—Kirkham's Grammar.

9. "Particle, in grammar, a word that is not varied or inflected."—Webster. "The parts of speech which are not inflected, are called by the general name of particles. They are adverbs, prepositions, conjunctions, and interjections."—

Andrews' Latin Exercises.

If we suppose men to have formerly existed entirely without language, it is natural to imagine that they invented words very nearly in the order in which we have arranged them. Their first business would be to apply names to the objects around them, then to point them out, then to make statements in relation to them, and finally to use other words to abbreviate their expressions, and to show delicate turns of thought. Thus, in looking at the stars, a beginner-in language would exclaim "stars!" and this would answer his present purpose; but an individual more advanced would cry, "bright stars!" and one still further acquainted with language would pronounce, "bright stars shine;" while one thoroughly skilled in the communication of thought, would say, "The bright stars shine beautifully above." This will be found to be nearly the way in which children learn to talk.

SUBSTANTIVES.

- 13—19. Many reckon abstract nouns, like collective nouns, as a subdivision of the common. But can such words as mercy, loveliness, meekness, be brought under any regular definition of common nouns? By forming a separate class, we make the definitions more accurate, we give an opportunity for the distinction at 45, and we may exercise the scholar in judging between common and abstract nouns, and modes of expression. "Nouns are either proper, common, or abstract."—Andrews' Latin Exercises. The proper and common name of an object are frequently associated; as, Cowper, the poet.
- 20. What are sometimes termed adjective pronouns we place under the head of adjectives, rather than under that of pronouns. The reason is, that their appropriate use is that of adjectives, and when they are not so used, a substantive is properly understood. See Brown's and Kirkham's Grammars.
- 22. When it is so used, it seems not to relate to any particular thing, but to a state of existence. When there is so used, it has a shorter pronunciation and a very different meaning from the adverb there. It is used with the verb be, only.

- 26. Whether was formerly used as an interrogative, referring to one of two things; as, "Whether is greater, the gold or the temple?" We now use the adjective which instead of it.
- 27. "The word for which a pronoun stands, is called its antecedent. But some have limited the term antecedent to the word represented by a relative."—Brown's Grammar. A pronoun is sometimes antecedent to another pronoun; as, "He that comes." Some call the word an antecedent, even if it comes after the pronoun; but this is evidently wrong.
- 28. Person is that property of a substantive which shows its relation to the discourse itself, whether as author, hearer, or mere subject of the discourse. Number is that property which has reference to unity and plurality. Gender is a distinction in regard to sex. Case is the relation of a substantive in a sentence; it therefore properly belongs to Syntax, under which head it is treated. How often has the learner been puzzled to understand case, merely because it was brought before him out of its proper place!
- 30, 31. You was formerly confined to the plural number, but is now used in common discourse as singular also, the original singular thou, (with its plural ye,) being reserved for solemn and dignified discourse. The solemn style is used in the scriptures and some solemn writings, in our addresses to the Deity, in most poetry, and universally by the Friends. Is it not a palpable defect in our grammars, to overlook this distinction, and compel us still to parse you as always plural? "Some grammarians consider the pronoun you to be always of the plural number; and the reason which they give, is this, that the pronoun you always requires a plural verb; but I consider that there is no more impropriety in saying that are is singular when it agrees with you, (you meaning but one person,) than there is in saying were is singular, when it agrees with I, thou, he, she, or it, of the third person singular."-Wilbur and Bryant's Grammar.
- 32—34. "Nouns have two persons, the second and third. In sentences like the following, 'I Jonas Taylor, give,' &c., it is evident that the speaker, in introducing his own name, speaks of himself; consequently the noun is of the third person.—Kirkham's Grammar. "All nouns and pronouns whatever, except I, thou, we, ye, or you, are, in grammatical construction, of the third person.—Alexander's Grammar.
- 35. In the Greek and some other languages, there are three numbers; the singular, to represent one; the dual, to represent two; and the plural to represent more than two. This probably originated from an ignorance of counting in the first ages. Thus the sayage would count one, two, and being able to go

no farther, would call all other numbers many or plural. Something of the dual sense is seen in our either, neither, both, and the ancient whether.

- 36, 37. The addition of s or es sometimes produces an additional syllable, and sometimes it does not; as, house, houses, box, box-es, cargo, cargoes.
- 38. Y with a vowel before it, is sometimes changed into ies by good authorities; as, attornies, journies. But this is best avoided.
- 41. The following are the principal words which have foreign plurals according to this rule; Antithesis, apex, appendix, arcanum, automaton, axis, basis, calx, crisis, criterion, datum, dieresis, desideratum, effluvium, ellipsis, emphasis, encomium, erratum, genius, hypothesis, ignus fatuus, index, magus, media, memorandum, metamorphosis, parenthesis, phenomenon, radius, stimulus, stratum, thesis, vertex, vortex.
- 43. There are different opinions as to these expressions. Some think they should be baskets-ful, Miss Thompsons.
- 50. It is generally said that words connected by and require a plural verb, without exception. But it is evident that there are many exceptions.
- 55. It will be perceived that all nouns are properly of the third person, and that the third person only has the distinctions of sex. The reason is, that the first and second persons being present, their names and their sex are supposed to be known, and therefore no nouns or genders are needed for these persons.

Males and females are distinguished by words in three

principal ways:

(1.) By the use of different names; as, boy, girl; father, mother; brother, sister.

(2.) By the use of different terminations; as, abbot, abbess;

hero, heroine.

(8.) By prefixing another word; as, man-servant, maid-servant.

ADJECTIVES.

- 57. For the propriety of the words adjective and definitive as here used, see note 7. 60. At the end of this paragraph, for "both numbers," read "either number."
- 61. The original article is an from the Saxon ane one. Hence its meaning. When we say a house, we mean in fact one house. Thus in French, the number une, one, answers both purposes; and hence a Frenchman learning English, says one book, one man, for a book, a man. An was formerly used before all words beginning with h; as, an house, an hundred.

- 63. The uniting of an and other seems to be unnecessary, and sometimes leads to the repetition of the article; as, another such a man.
- 65—70. It will be perceived that the distinctions of articles, demonstratives, &c. are not brought before the mind of the beginner, to confuse it, but are reserved for a later period of the study. The distinction of definitive is sufficiently minute for the novice in grammar, and answers all practical purposes. How much better this, than to fill his mind in the outset with unimportant names and useless distinctions.
- 65. It is generally said that the shows exactly what is meant, and a or an does not. But that no such general rule can be laid down will be evident from the following examples; He played the gentleman. Lions roam in the forest. Solomon built a temple. Washington was a patriot. It is also generally said that a noun without an article is taken in its widest sense. That this rule is not general will be seen from the following cases; Boys, come in. Air is in this room. All that can properly be said of the articles, is, that a is used to mean one, and the is used when an article is needed and a would not do. The is sometimes used before a singular to designate the whole class; as, the beasts of the forest. When the is prefixed to adverbs, adverbial phrases are formed; as, the better, (that is, in the better manner.)

The importance of the proper use of articles will be seen from the different meanings of the following expressions; 'the son of a king,' 'the son of the king,' 'a son of a king,' 'a son

of the king,' 'thou art a man,' 'thou art the man.'

- 67. The words which and what are generally reckoned as a distinct kind of definitives, under the name of interrogatives. But they are used as often without asking a question as with. They are therefore properly reckoned among the indefinites.
- 68. Every was formerly used apart from its substantive, but is not now, except in legal language; as, 'Each and every of them.'
- 69, 70. Both numerals and ordinals are sometimes called numerals, the first kind being distinguished as cardinal. But this makes unnecessary confusion; and besides, the words first, second, &c. do no express number.
- 71. Definitives when alone may be parsed, either as agreeing with their substantives understood, or as definitives used as pronouns.
- 72. Descriptives are sometimes divided into common; as, good, bad;—proper; as, American, English;—and compound; as, nut-brown, laughter-loving, four-footed.

74. There seems to be an impropriety in the use of the word degree, as applied to the positive. Hence we use the word form. For the same reason, we avoid the expression degrees of comparison, since comparison is not always implied. "The degrees of comparison are two; the comparative and superla-

tive."—Alexander's Grammar.

Most qualities have an infinite number of degrees. But as these could not all be expressed by different forms, we use but a few different shapes of the descriptive, and denote the degree of quality more exactly by the use of adverbs. It is only words of one syllable, and those of two syllables which end in y or le, that generally have these different forms. The adverb prefixed to an adjective should be parsed seperately. "This can hardly be called a variation of the adjective. The adverbs may with more propriety be parsed seperately." Brown.

VERBS.

85. Verbs which denote action, are called active verbs; and verbs which denote being, are called neuter verbs. But this distinction need not be made in parsing, since it is rather logical than grammatical. Indeed, it is sometimes difficult to decide whether a verb does denote action or simply being. Thus the verb stand seems at first view to represent merely a state of being, but examination will show that there is action in it; for we must exert our muscles to keep from falling, so that standing, in this sense is an act. Yet what purpose does it answer in grammar to decide whether it denotes being or action? This will not effect the relations of words, or the manner of expressing a sentence. The only necessary distinction here, seems to be that of transitive and intransitive, for this is what affects the construction. This is the only distinction made by Noah Webster, and some other eminent grammarians, and answers every practical purpose. Most transitive verbs, of course, express action. "Verbs are of two kinds, transitive and intransitive."-Kirkham's Grammar. So also Alexander's Grammar.

Some grammarians say that all verbs denote action; but as we have shown, this point is unnecessary to be decided in grammar, although there may be some ground for the assumption. Others say that all verbs are transitive, affecting objects expressed or understood. Thus, if we say "I stand;" we mean "I stand or support myself." If we say "we are," we mean "we air ourselves!" How philosophical this may be, we will not now decide; but we leave it to plain commonsense men, to say if it is proper to be taught to children. Yet this is the result of boasted modern improvement, and is even

now taught in some places in this country.

Some verbs really affect their objects; as, "The man makes shoes;" others merely have reference to their objects; as, "John

resembles George;" "I have a book."

Some persons speak of impersonal verbs; as, it rains, it snows. But the verbs are as evidently personal in this case, and have as regularly a subject, as in any other, and thus do not resemble Latin Impersonal verbs. All the indefiniteness of such expressions, arises from the use of the word it. See 22.

93. If modes be the manner of representing the verb, we see no good reason why participles should not be reckoned a mode. Are they not a manner of representing the verb? And why should we have a certain number of modes, and then a nameless appendage, neither mode nor tense, under the name of participle? "Participles are, in one sense, but a mere mode or form of the verb."—Prof. Pond's Grammar.

96. It will be seen, that we consider the subjunctive not a mode, but a way of using the other modes. A neglect of this principle has involved grammarians in many difficulties. They are at a loss how to dispose of such expressions as, "If I can come," "Though he should go," &c. because they are both subjunctive and potential. They have been obliged to exhibit two forms of the subjunctive mode. The first of these forms is the Indicative form of the Subjunctive mode! How much more simple to say that it is the indicative mode used subjunctively or in a doubttful sense. The second of these forms is the Elliptical form of the Subjunctive mode, about which, Green in a note of his grammar says; "This form of the subjunctive mode has should, or some other auxiliary understood." (p. 77.) Kirkham calls it the elliptical future, and says an auxiliary is always understood. How much more simple to say that it is the potential mode with the auxiliary understood. Thus we are freed entirely from the useless trumpery of a subjunctive mode, and are still left with three finite modes, which are as many as the Latin, French, and other languages possess. For further illustration of this point, see § 188-192, & 295.

We say that the subjunctive is as much a kind of sentence as the affirmative, the negative, or the interrogative. And we say further, that if one is a mode, then the whole are modes; if there is a subjunctive mode, then there is an affirmative mode, a negative mode, and an interrogative mode. If placing the conjuction if in the sentence, changes "I did go," to another mode; then placing the adverb not in the same sentence, changes it to yet another mode. But every purpose is answered with far greater simplicity, by calling the sentence affirmative, negative, interrogative, or subjunctive, as the case may be, and parsing the verb as indicative or potential, the

auxiliary of the latter being sometimes understood. For the cases when the auxiliary is best omitted, see 295.

97. Though imperative implies a demand, yet this mode is used also for the humblest kind of entreaty; as, "Forgive us our trespasses."

104. Tenses are generally said to represent time merely. But if so, there could be but three tenses, as there are but three divisions of time.

The common arrangement of tenses is very obscure and complicated. But here, the very terms used explain themselves; the meaning of all the tenses is clearly exhibited in a single sentence; the conjugation of the verb is made short and plain; the formation of the tenses is seen at a single view; and the whole subject occupies two or three pages, instead of fifteen or twenty. We leave it for teachers and pupils to say if this method does not furnish the advantages which we ourselves have derived from it, in our instruction of the young.

109. What propriety is there in attributing time to the imperative, infinitive, and potential modes? Yet this is the common method. Is not the accurate distinction of these

modes perfect and imperfect.

"Participles do not, of themselves, express any particular time; but they denote the state of being, action, or passion, in regard to its progress or completion. The participle in ing has been called present and active; but its distinguishing character is that it denotes an unfinished and progressive state; it is, therefore, properly called the imperfect participle. This name is adopted and defended by several of the most respectable grammarians; as, Dr. Crombe, J. Grant, and T. D. Churchill. The particle in ed denotes completion, and is therefore denominated the perfect participle."—Kirkham's Grammar. most unexceptionable distinction which grammarians make between the participles, is, that the one points to the continuation of the action, &c., and the other to the completion of it. Thus, the present participle signifies imperfect action, or action begun and not ended; the past participle signifies action perfected or finished."-Murray. The same reasoning will apply to all other parts of the verb.

114. In conjugating the verb, we deem it most simple to exhibit it by tenses merely, without reference to number and person. The personal variations are in English very few, and are most easily learned and understood, and most practically remembered by means of rules, as in 240, 241. The conjugation is thus very much simplified and shortened, and yet more perfectly understood.

The second principal part, as it has no other parts formed from it, is sometimes called the preterit to distinguish it. See Brown's Grammar.

118. It is commonly said that the potential mode has no future tenses. But are not future events represented as often comparatively in the potential as in the indicative? Green, in his grammar, after making the abovementioned statement, says that shall and will may be considered as sometimes belonging to the potential mode, (p. 38.) We therefore use them

in conjugating both modes.

When do shall and will denote simple futurity, and when determination? Ans.—Shall, with the first person, and will with the other persons, denote simple futurity; will, with the first person, and shall with the other persons, denote determination; as, I shall go, you will go, he will go, indicative; I will go, you shall go, he shall go, potential. But in interrogative and subjunctive sentences, this rule does not always hold; as, shall we go, if he will go. The expression will have is not used in subjunctive sentences.

121. Some are in the habit of calling the passive form of expression an additional kind of verb, under the name of passive verb, or passive voice, and conjugating it throughout as such. But it is no more necessary to do this, than it is to call 'I am moving,' an additional kind of verb, and conjugate it as such-or to call 'I am ashamed' still another kind of verb. It is far more simple to remember, that in each of these cases we have merely the verb to be united to a participle or an adjective, and that these are all forms of expression, not different kinds of verbs. "What is called the passive verb is not properly a distinct verb, but merely a particular form of the active verb."-Pond's Murray's Grammar. "In English, we have no passive verbs. That form of expression, which answers to the Greek and Latin passive verbs, is made by the combination of a helping verb and a participle of the past time."—Alexander's Grammar. We thus free our grammar from the whole confusion and unnecessary prolixity caused by the passive conjugation. But some seem to delight in making any subject which they teach appear large and important, and especially to clothe the simple English tongue with all the formality and circumstance of ancient, learned, dead languages! But the principles of mode, tense, &c., which we have given, are analogous to the principles of those languages, and we are in error, if their grammars would not be much simplified by a little improvement in these respects. Certain it is, that no one need fear, that by the study of the verbs as here unfolded, he will be at all unfitted to engage in the study of the dead languages.

Others, in this day of ultra improvement, are taking the other extreme. Several grammars have appeared, which discard altogether the idea of any auxiliaries, and parse each part of the verb separately. Thus, in the sentence, "He will have been overtaken," will is considered the finite verb-have as in the infinitive without the sign to, and governed by will, -been as a perfect participle belonging to he, and overtaken also as a perfect participle belonging to he. Our objection to this is, that it is an extreme,—that it makes the conjugation of a verb convey no practical meaning,—that it is too close an analysis for the minds of youth, -and that it throws away those names, which are needed, if not to point out single words, yet still to designate different forms of expression. We may philosophically explain that verbs are thus resolvable into their parts; vet still there is a practical convenience in calling a certain form of words, always used in the same connection, either perfect or imperfect, indicative or potential in meaning. We therefore choose to hold a medium course; to discard the verb to be, as an auxiliary, since to consider it in this light serves merely to confuse, -but to retain the other auxiliaries as such, since this manner of considering them will throw most clear and practical light upon their use.

123. We have found this method of arranging the irregular verbs to take up less room than common, and to facilitate the memory and the understanding of the pupil. We have not embraced in the list, such words as are obsolete or unallowable, but have included all the irregular verbs now in good use. Most of them will be found to be of one syllable, and to have been derived from the Saxon. The whole number of verbs in

English, is about 4300, of irregular verbs, 177.

A few of these verbs need a remark. Let is much used in the imperative mode followed by the infinitive; as, "Let him go;" that is, "Let, (or allow) thou him (to) go." Read and heat, though always spelled the same, are shortened in pronunciation in the second and third parts. Borne is the regular third part of bear, to bring forth; but born is used as the passive participle; as, "America has borne such heroes as are born nowhere else." The auxiliary may, might, implies opportunity or privilege; can, could, implies power or liberty; must implies obligation or necessity; would implies will; should implies duty or contingency; have, had, implies completeness; quoth means the same as said; lo! means the same as behold! beware is not used in the present indicative, or in the second and third parts.

The nature of the English language and of the English people is such, as to tend constantly to the contraction of our words, especially the verbs. Thus the plural termination en has become entirely obsolete; th or eth is no longer in common use; ed is contracted in pronunciation, the ancient ys or is is changed to s or es, and is usually pronounced without an additional syllable; and the participial en is used less and less frequently.

PARTICLES.

126. These kinds of adverbs may be variously subdivided; as, adverbs of time present, past, future, indefinite, &c. But it is thought unnecessary in a text book to go into all these little particulars, especially as they are observable to all, without remark.

It might seem unnecessary to have adverbs of time, since we have tenses to our verbs to express time. But it will be remembered that tenses mark only the three grand divisions of time; and adverbs are needed to express more definitely the exact point of time intended.

128. Most adverbs in ly have their degrees expressed by more, most, &c. as, gently, more gently, most gently, &c.

129. Relative pronouns and prepositions, as well as conjunctions, serve to connect, but this is not their peculiar office.

130. Conjunctions are generally divided into copulative and disjunctive; but more confusion than practical advantage seems to be derived from the division. We have therefore omitted it. See Webster's grammar. We have however placed the words in the usual order, so that those who choose, may make the distinction.

131. The following are the principal words thus used: 'after, again, also, before, besides, else, even, hence, however, moreover, nevertheless, otherwise, since, then, thence, therefore, till, until, when, where, wherefore, while or whilst.'—Brown.

132. The primary object of prepositions, is to denote relations of place. But they are also used figuratively to denote other relations, which bear some resemblance to that of place; as, "The rich are above the poor;" "You are in danger."

The same preposition may show a number of relations in different cases, as will be seen by the following meanings of

the preposition for.

1. Because of; as, "Praise him for his goodness."

For the sake of; as, "He did it for me."
 In favor of; as, "He is for me."

4. For the purpose of; as, "It was made for sailing."5. In exchange for; as, "He took money for his goods."

6. With regard to; as, " For me, I am poor."

7. As; "Let him go for an infidel."

8. By means of; as, "If it were not for him."

9. Toward; as, "He sailed for China." 10. In search of; as, "We went for wealth."

11. Notwithstanding; as, "For all that, you are poor." 12. In proportion to; as, "He is large for his age."

13. During; as, "He serves for life."

14. I long for; as, "O, for better times." &c. &c.

135. The following are some of the principal expressions of emotion. 1. Joy—hey! io! O! ha, ha, ha! 2. Sorrow—oh! eh! ah! alas! alack! 3. Wonder—heigh! oh! ah! hah! strange! 4. Aversion—pugh! poh! pshaw! pish! tush! foh! fie! off! begone! 5. Calling—O! ho! soho! hollo! lo! behold! hark! look! see! hush! hist! hum! 6. Exultationaha! huzza! hey day! hurrah! 7. Salutation-welcome! hail! all hail! farewell! adieu!

Yes! and No! are commonly reckoned adverbs; but they are mere cries of assent and dissent, and are more properly

called interjections. Do they ever qualify anything?

PHRASES.

137. A phrase may be parsed as a single word; but it is better, when it is possible, to analyze it more particularly. There are some irregular expressions in every language, which cannot be explained upon the principles of grammar. Custom has made them correct, and all we can say of them is, that they are idiomatical phrases. Such are the following; methinks, thinks I, than whom.

DERIVATION ..

Inseperable Prepositions.

169. These are derived chiefly from other languages, but have each a distinct meaning of its own. The following is a list of the principal ones, among which we have inserted some which are used also apart.

A denotes on or in; as, afloat, abed.

A, ab, or abs, (Lat.)—from, away; as absolve. A, (Greek,)—without; as, abyss, without bottom.

Ad, (Lat.)—to, at; as, adjoin. After—after; as, afternoon.

Amphi, (Gr.)—both; as, amphibious, living both ways. Ante, (Lat.)—before; as, ante-chamber.

Anti, (Gr.)—against; as, Antichrist.

Apo, (Gr.)—from; as, apostrophe, taken from.

Up-up; as, uphold.

With—against; as, withstand.

Be-abundance; as, belove, bedaub. Circum, (Lat.)—around; as, circumnavigate. Com, con, co, col, (Lat.)—together; as, coöperate. Contra, (Lat.)—opposite; as, contra-distinguish. Counter, (Fr.)—opposite; as, counter-balance. De, (Lat.)—down, from; as, depart. Di, dis, (Lat.)—apart, not; as, dissever, displease. Dia, (Gr.)—through; as, diameter, measure through. E, ex, (Lat.)—out of; as, express. En, em, (Fr.)—in; as, entangle. Enter, (Fr.)—between; as, enter-lace. Epi, (Gr.)—upon; as, epicycle, upon a circle. Extra, (Lat.)—without, beyond; as, extraordinarily. For—not; as, forbid. Fore—before; as, foresee. Gain—against; as, gainsay. Hyper, (Gr.)—over; as, hypercritical. Hypo, (Gr.(—under; as, hypocritical. In, (Lat.)—in, not; as, inlay, indecent. Inter, (Lat.)—between; as, interjoin. Intro, (Lat.)—within; as introversion. Miss—wrongly; as, misinform. Meta, (Gr.)—change; as, metamorphose, to change the shape. Ob, (Lat.)—before, against; as, object, throw against. Out-beyond; as, outrun. Over—over; as, overlook. Para, (Gr.)—beyond, beside; as, paragraph, written beyond. Per, (Lat.)—through; as perfume. Peri, (Gr.)—around; as, periwig. Post, (Lat.)—after; as, post-existence. Pre, (Lat.) -- before; as, prescience. Preter, (Lat.)—beyond; as, preternatural. Pro, (Lat.)—before, forward; as, promotion. Re, (Lat.)—back, again; as, reprint. Retro, (Lat.)—back; as, retrocession. Se, (Lat.)—apart; as, secession. Semi, demi, hemi, (Lat.)—half; as, semicircle, demigod, hemisphere. Sub, subter, (Lat.)—under; as, sub-deacon. Super, (Lat.)—over, above; as, superfine. Sur, (Fr.)—over; as, surpass. Syn, sym, syl, (Gr.)—with, together; as, sympathy, feeling with. Trans, or tra, (Lat.)—over, beyond; as, transplant. Ultra, (Lat.)—beyond; as, ultra-marine. Un—not, &c.; as, unworthy, uneasy. Under-under; as, undersell.

Derivation of Saxon words.

177. The following are the derivations of many of the smaller Saxon words.

A, or an, ane, aen, one—from ananud, to add.

The, se, see, te—from thean, to take.

That, thaet, the—from thean, to take.

Still-from stellan, to put.

Else—from alesan, to dismiss.

Rather-comparative of rath, soon.

And-from anad, ananad, to add to.

If—from gif, gifan, to grant.

Yet-from get, getan, to get.

Eke, (also)—from eac, eacan, to add.

Though—from thafig, thafigan, to allow.

But [conj.]—from bot, botan, to add.

But [prep.]—from be-utan, beon-utan, to be out.

Unless—from onles, onlesan, to dismiss. Less—from lesed lesan, to dismiss.

Since—from sines or syne, seon, to see.

Either-from agther. At-from aet.

Above—from a, be, and ufa, high.

About—from a and bout, limit.

After-comparative of aft.

Against--from on-geond, gone at.

Against—from a and mongst, mixed.

Beneath—from be and neath, low; whence nether.

Between-from be and twain, two.

Betwixt—from be and a Gothic word, two.

Beyond—from be and geond, geondan, to pass.

By, bi, be-from beon, to be.

Down-from dun, low.

During-from dure, to last.

From-from frum or fram, beginning.

Up, upon—from ufon, high. Over—from ufera, higher.

Through—from thorough, a door.

To, till—from to and til, end.

Toward—from to and ward, wardian, to look.

Under (Dulch)—from on-neder, or on-nether.

With—from withan, to join.

Fie!—from fian, to hate.

What-from qua that, hwa that, &c.

I—written J, Y, y, i, ic, ich. My—mi, min, mine, myne, myn. Me—mee. We—wee. Our—ours, oure, ure. All the pro-

nouns were written thus variously.

Needs is a contraction of need is; prithee, of I pray thee; alone, of all one; only, of one like; anon, of in one (instant);

or, of other; nor, of not or; among, of amongst; through, of

thorough; welcome, of well come.

Very is formed from the French, veray or vrai, true; along, from a and long; amid, from a and mid or middest; before, from be and fore; concerning, from concern; excepting, from except; round, from the adjective round; throughout, from through and out; underneath, from under and neath; within, from with and in; without, from with and out; hey! from high; alas! from the French helas! alack! from alas! heyday! from high day! avaunt! from the French avant, before; lo! from look; begone, from be and gone, &c.

Some grammarians think that in parsing such words as the foregoing, we should follow the original Saxon meaning, calling that always a pronoun, but and if imperative modes, &c. But however philosophical this may be, we must, in instructing youth, always go by the present use and import of words; and teach the language as it is, not as it was, remembering that a child should first learn the modern English, and afterwards may attend to the ancient Saxon.

Derivation of Grammatical Terms.

These are mostly from the Latin and Greek, as follows:

Grammar, (Gr.) gramma, first principles. Etymology, (Gr.) etymon logos, science of roots. Syntax, (Gr.) sun taxis, uniting together. Orthography, (Gr.) orthos graphe, true writing. Prosody, (Gr.) pros odos, relating to odes. Adjective, (Lat.) ad jicio, added to. Verb, (Lat.) verbum, a word [important.] Particle, (Lat.) particula, a small part. Noun, (Lat.) nomen, a name. Pronoun, (Lat.) pro nomen, instead of a name. Antecedent, (Lat.) ante cedo, going before. Subsequent, (Lat.) sub sequor, following after. Gender, (Lat.) gens, a kind. Neuter, (Lat.) neither. Article, (Lat.) articulus, a small joint. Transitive, (Lat.) trans eo, passing over. Potential, (Lat.) potens, powerful. Subjunctive, (Lat.) sub jungo, subjoined. Adverb, (Lat.) ad verbum, added to a verb. Conjunction, (Lat.) con jungo, conjoining. Preposition, (Lat.) pre pono, placed before. Interjection, (Lat.) inter jicio, thrown between. Primitive, (Lat.) primus, the first. Attribute, (Lat.) ad tribuo, applied to.

Complex, (Lat.) com plecto, embraced together. Analysis, (Gr.) ana lusis, taking apart. Parse, (Lat.) pars, a part. Ellipsis, (Gr.) elleipsis, leaving out. Vowel, (Lat.) vocalis, vocal. Consonant, (Lat.) con sonans, sounding with. Labial, (Fr.) lips. Palatal, (Lat.) the palate. Lingual, (Lat.) lingua, the tongue. Dental, (Lat.) dens, a tooth. Aspirate, (Lat.) aspiro, to breathe. Dipthong, tripthong, (Gr.) two thongs, three thongs. Mono, dis, tris, polysyllable, (Gr.) one, two, three, many Punctuation, (Lat.) punctus, a point. syllables. Parenthesis, (Gr.) para en tithemi, placed within, Apostrophe, (Gr.) apo strepho, cut off. Caret, (Lat.) caret, it is wanting. Dieresis, (Gr.) dia aireo, take apart. Capital, (Lat.) caput, the head. Typography, (Gr.) tupos grapho, type writing. Chirography, (Gr.) cheir grapho, hand writing. Versification, (Lat.) verse making.

SYNTAX.

181. It is generally said that the subject of a verb consists always of a single word. The absurdity of this, will be seen from the following sentences; "Two and three are five;" "The king and queen are an amiable pair." If each substantive is to be taken separately as a subject, then "two is five," and "three is five;" "the king is an amiable pair," and "three queen is an amiable pair!" Is it not plain that the verb agrees with both substantives together? Otherwise it should be singular; and so in all cases of substantives connected by and. This is, in fact, one way of forming a plural. See § 50.

184. It will be perceived that the explanation may be an explanation of time, place, quantity, object, &c. The object cannot properly be called one of the principal parts of a sentence; as it belongs only to some sentences, and then is dependant on the verb which it modifies or explains.

191. "The subjunctive may be signified by any conjunction, expressing a condition, doubt, supposition, &c.; such as if, though, although, lest, unless." (See § 268.) "The subjunctive is always attended by another verb, and consequently is never used in a strictly simple sentence. As the indicative is changed into the subjunctive by prefixing a conjunction, so the potential may in like manner be turned into the subjunctive."—Pond's Murray's Grammar.

198. It is important to bear constantly in mind that grammar does not make the language, but the language makes grammar. The grammarian has no right to insist, in all cases, on the best methods of expression, but upon the best authorized. No matter how great the irregularity, if it is in universal, approved use, it is grammatical. If the grammarian were allowed to make laws for the language, we might begin at the very foundation, and constitute a new and more accurate alphabet; we might make a complete revolution, by simplifying orthography; and the language would soon be no more uniform than are the systems of the thousand grammar makers. Wherein, then, it may be asked, is the difference in the rules, as given in different books? We answer, if no errors are made, the difference consists, not in the nature of the principles, but in the manner of expressing and presenting them. We have here so expressed and classified them, as to make but fourteen, instead of thirty or forty general principles, and, we think, with perfect clearness to the pupil. Let the examiner decide for himself.

199. "Case, in English Grammar, is a name given to the relation which a noun has to other words in the same sentence."-Frost's Grammar. We choose to use the term subjective rather than nominative, because it is shorter, and because it conveys its meaning by its sound, whereas the latter word means; indeed, little or nothing in itself. It is generally said that there are but three cases, and then to make up for the defect, we are told that there is a nominative case absolute. and a nominative case independent. Are these not as distinct cases or relations of substantives as any of the others? And is it not much simpler and shorter, to say merely absolute or independent case? It will be seen, that for simplicity, we use only the word absolute, as it is the shorter, and as the two words mean alike. By this arrangement, we are enabled to define each case exactly, and all the terms convey their own meaning. And by treating the subject here, the definition of each case becomes the syntactical rule for that case. What is the definition of a case or relation, but a rule?

In the ancient languages, cases were generally distinguished by different terminations; but in the modern, case is usually

ENGLISH.

ly determined by the situation of a word; thus:-

LATIN.

Nominative	Dominus,	The Lord reigns.	Subjective.	
Genitive	Domini,	The Lord's day.	Possessive.	
Dative	Domino,	To the Lord.	Objective.	
Accusative	Dominum,	Love the Lord.	Objective.	
Vocative	Domine,	Oh Lord!	Absolute.	
Ablative	Domino,	The Lord reigning.	Absolute.	

201. We are told by some, that the possessive case is governed by the following noun; but is such language intelligible to the young? The possessive case has very much the nature of an adjective, and such as prefer, can parse it as a possessive adjective formed from a substantive, and belonging to another substantive. "The possessive case is always an adjunct to a noun; and some grammarians have classed it with the adjectives."—Brown's Grammar.

"This word, (John's,) which has been considered by many able grammarians, as a noun in the possessive case can be nothing more; (according to the learned Horne Tooke's idea;) than a mere demonstrative possessive adjective, derived from the noun John, which by adding apostrophe s, must be joined to a noun before we can get that word, which we can make the subject of discourse."—Wilbur and Bryant's Grammar.

Possession is frequently denoted by an of placed before the

name of the possessor.

206. Through a neglect of this remark, such words are sometimes parsed as a direct address, than which, nothing could be farther from the truth. Exclamations and titles may frequently be parsed by supplying some ellipsis; but it takes much from their vivacity, and it is generally better to consider them absolute.

208. The apostrophe and s are sometimes added to mere characters, to denote plurality, and not the possessive case; as, two a's, three b's, four 9's.

210. But if a thing belongs to several individuals seperately, they should each have the sign; as, "Henry's, William's, and Joseph's estates." Also, when words in apposition are quite distinct, the first only may have the sign, and sometimes both; as, "We staid awhile at Lyttleton's, the ornament of his country. "It is at Smith's, the bookseller's shop." In some cases it is preferable to avoid the possessive, and use of which answers the same purpose. Thus, "Dr. Pearson of Birmingham's experiments," would better be, "The experiments of Dr. Pearson of Birmingham." It will be understood, that, in parsing such phrases, we are to parse each word without regard to the sign, considering it as the sign of the whole clause.

214. Ye is sometimes, especially in comic writing, used as objective case; as, "I tell ye." His was formerly used as the possessive of it; as, "Look not upon the wine when it giveth his color in the cup,"—Proverbs. The plural of the first person is sometimes used as singular, for the sake of modesty or dignity; as, "We, emperor of Russia," &c. In the same manner you, which was formerly plural only, has become singular also. Whose is properly the possessive of who, but it is now

used as the possessive of which also; and as that is always used instead of who or which, whose is of course the possessive of that.

The absolute case is in form like the subjective; but me is used instead of I in an exclamation; as, "Ah me!" "Me

miserable!"

The words my, thy, &c. are by some said to be not possessive cases, but possessive adjectives. We reply, they are as much possessive cases as the words, John's, Henry's, &c. for they are used in the same way exactly. But, as we have observed, all possessive cases may be called possessive adjectives, and are so called by some. If my, &c. are called adjectives, then John's, &c. should be treated in the same manner.

"They ought to be classed with the personal pronouns. That principle which ranks them with the adjective pronouns, would also throw all nouns in the possessive case among the adjec-

tives."—Kirkham's Grammar.

215. The words mine, thine, &c. are by some considered as possessive cases of the pronouns. But we have shown that my, thy, &c. are the possessive cases; and again, possessive cases always describe other substantives, but these do not. What does yours describe in the following sentence? "This is my book and that is yours." Or, as some express it, by what is yours governed? It cannot be by book, for how will it read—"that is yours book?" It must be changed into the possessive case your, before it can be so parsed. Yours is evidently a compound word, equivalent to your book, and may be parsed seperately by its constituent parts, or together as a compound pronoun. What should we think of parsing the French le mien, le tien, &c. (which are equivalent to our mine, thine, &c.) as possessive cases? "Mine, thine, &c. are compounds, including both the possessive adjective and noun."-Wilbur and Bryant's Grammar. "These pronouns invariably stand for not only the person possessing, but also the thing possessed, which gives them a compound character. They may, therefore, be properly denominated compound personal pronouns, and they should, like the compound relative what be parsed as two words."—Kirkham's Grammar. (See that grammar for a complete explanation of this subject.)

218. The rule, as thus expressed, becomes a general principle, (the appropriateness of which even a child can see,) embracing several similar cases. Is not this preferable to making every case a rule, whose appropriateness we do not without some reflection perceive?

226. "The word which follows the verb, may be said to be in apposition with that which precedes it."—Brown's Grammar.

227. A relative in the subjective case, is the subject of the nearest verb, and introduces a parenthetic clause; as, "He, who did it, knew his duty." A personal pronoun does not always agree in person with its antecedent; as, "John said, will do it." When a pronoun will not make the sense clear, the noun must be repeated. Thus, "We see the beautiful variety of colors in the rainbow and are led to consider the cause of it." [that variety.]

228. Which was formerly applied to persons; as, "Our Father which art in heaven."—Bible. It is now also applied to young children, and to words which merely imply persons; as, "The child which was here;" "The crowds which collected." As a definitive, it is applied to persons as often as to

things; as, "Which man came?"

The relative that is preferable to who or which, in the following cases:—1. After the antecedent who; 2. When the antecedent includes both persons and things; 3. After a superlative, or the adjective same; 4. After an unlimited antecedent; 5. After an antecedent introduced by the indefinite it; 6. Whenever the propriety of who or which is doubtful; as, "Who, that has sense, thinks so?" "The woman and the estate, that became his portion;" "He was the first that came;" "He is the same person that I met before;" "Thoughts that breathe;" "It was I that did it; "The little child that was placed in the midst."

229. "Things remarkable for power, greatness, or sublimity, are spoken of as masculine; as, the sun, time, death, sleep, fear, anger, winter, war. Things beautiful, amiable, or prolific, are spoken of as feminine; as, the moon, earth, nature, fortune, knowledge, hope, spring, peace."—Brown's Grammar.

230. It seems to be a great deficiency in our language, that we have not a pronoun of common gender, in the third person. We are obliged to use other pronouns, or to make a difficult and disagreeable circumlocution; as, "he and she," &c. The deficiency also frequently leads to grammatical errors; as, "Every one that do their duty," &c. Who shall have sufficient authority to introduce a word to supply the defect? Some such pronoun as se, (from the Latin,) would probably be the best, as it would resemble the sound of both he and she, and this is necessary in order to the introduction of such a word.

233. "The small claims of the article to a separate rank as a distinct part of speech, ought not to be admitted in a scientific classification of words. A and the, this and that, ten, few, fowth, and many other words, are used to restrict, vary, or define the signification of the nouns to which they are joined. They might therefore with propriety be ranked under the gen-

eral head of Restrictives, Indexes, or Defining Adjectives."—Kirkham's Grammar.

When an adjective or participle immediately follows a verb, it generally belongs to the subject of that verb; as, "I am glad the door is made wide.'

234. Adjectives seem also sometimes to qualify verbs; as, "Open your hand wide;" "The apples boil soft."

237. There seems to have been a general mistake in relation to the comparative. It has been said that it always compares two things, and that the latter term of comparison must always include the former. It will be seen that it is not so; that there are two distinct uses of the comparative, which have heretofore been confounded.

238. Generally a noun used in a limited manner, should have a definitive, but not when used in an unlimited manner. A title, when spoken of as such, should not have an article; as, "The best men do wrong;" "Man is the noblest work of God;" "The commission of Captain." But after all, no exact rules can be given for the use of definitives; good taste must be our guide. We must say, "We are in a harry;" but not "We are in a haste." There is much difference between "few men," "little care," and "a few men," "a little care;" in the former case, we speak negatively; in the latter, affirmatively; and the reason is, that few and little, in the latter case, become nouns. See § 284.

240. The regular way of changing the verb for thou, is to add est, or st when the verb ends in e. But as our language tends to contraction, st only may in any case be added, and an apostrophe inserted if a vowel is omitted; as, thinkst, sayst, bidst, lov'st lov'dst, slumberst, slumber'dst. (See Brown's Grammar.) This is especially the case in poetry. Dost, didst, hadst, hadst, shalt, wilt, mayst, canst, mightst, couldst, wouldst, shouldst, have now become permanent contractions; must needs no change for thou. When the second part with st would sound too harsh, didst should be used; as, thou didst arise, not thou arosest.

241. The termination th is used only in the solemn style. Eth is added, or th when the verb ends in e. Doth, hath, and saith have become permanent contractions.

243. The verb be was formerly regular in the present; as, "What be these two olive branches?"—Zech. IV: 12.

246. When subjects are connected by or or nor, it is best to place the plural one, if there is such, last. The speaker should always mention himself last; as, "You or I must go;" "He or they are coming." It is only when subjects are connected by or or nor, that the verb agrees with the last. When

they are connected by and not, as well as, &c., it generally agrees with the first; as, "Cæsar, as well as Cicero, was admired for his eloquence."

247. General truths should usually be expressed in the present imperfect tense; as, "He did not know that two and two make four;" not made.

248. Nothing seems to have confused grammarians more than the relations of infinitives in a sentence. Many tell us they are governed by other words; but in what sense they are governed, is not fully explained. (By the way, this word govern is rather a useless word in in grammar.) Greene says that "the infinitive mode may be governed by a verb, noun, adjective or participle," or may follow "almost any part of speech"! Is this rule sufficiently definite to be understood by the young, or to be of any practical utility? Smith says that "the infinitive mode may follow verbs, participles, adjectives, nouns and pronouns, and than or as"! Now what would be thought of our rule, if we should say, "Nouns may follow substantives, adjectives, verbs, adverbs, conjunctions, prepositions, or almost any thing else!" Yet no more definite than this are grammarians about the infinitive mode. Parker and Fox say that "the infinitive mode may be governed by a verb, a participle, a noun, or an adverb, or follow an objective case, or than or as," &c. Brown says that "the preposition to governs the infinitive mode." Yet all these grammarians tell us that the infinitive sometimes is the subject of a verb, and sometimes is absolute or in the absolute case; and Pond. and Parker and Fox go so far as to say that the infinitive is sometimes in the objective case. All our dificulties in relation to this mode are gone, when we learn, that the infinitive is always used as a substantive, and is to be parsed in the same manner. "The rule which they [grammarians] give, is partial and often inapplicable; and their exceptions to it are numerous and perplexing. They teach that at least half the different parts of speech frequently govern the infinitive; if so, there should be a distinct rule for each. The infinitive is a mere verb, without affirmation; and, in some respects, resembles a noun. It may stand for a subject," &c. "In Latin, according to the grammars, the infinitive mode may stand for a noun in all the six cases; and many have called it an indeclinable noun. See the Port Royal Latin Grammar, in which many constructions of the infinitive are referred to the government of a preposition understood."-Brown's Grammar. "The infinitive is often akin to a substantive noun, and, both in English and Latin, is sometimes construed as such."—Dr. Blair.

250, 253. "The infinitive mode does the office of a sub-

stantive in the objective case; as, "Boys love to play;" that is, they love play."—Pond's Murray. "Rule XX. The infinitive mode is sometimes used as the objective case, governed by an active verb, or a preposition."—Parker and Fox's Grammar. "The infinitive mode sometimes follows an objective case."—Id. "To appears to (influence the infinitive). The preposition about often has influence upon the infinitive. The infinitive is often used as the antecedent to a relative."—Alexander's Grammar.

256. In this case, the words may be parsed together, or we may say, to be is used as an adjective, belonging to the subject.

257. A participle preceded by a possessive case or a definitive, is used as a substantive; but, preceded by a subjective or objective case, it is used as a descriptive; and care is to be used in choosing between these two constructions. We should say, "He felt his strength declining;" but, "He was sensible of his strength's declining." sometimes the sense requires that the participle be altogether avoided; thus, "He mentions Newton's writing a commentary," or "He mentions Newton writing a commentary," would better be, "He mentions that Newton wrote a commentary.

259. This construction should be avoided, whenever it is possible. We should say, "The money was paid him," "This privilege was denied me;" not, "He was paid the money," "I was denied this privilege."

262. "The almost Christian." In such cases, we may parse the adverb as qualifying the substantive, or as used as an adjective, or as qualifying a verb or participle understood.

264. But the repetition of a negative strengthens the negation; as, no, no, no.

270. "Connected verbs may not always be in the same mode and tense. Hundreds of instances might be adduced, in which such verbs are not in the same mode and tense; as, "He would not come, but sent his brother;" "I love you, and have provided for your education;" "We want you here, and shall send for you."—Pond's Murray. "In which situation it is not less apt to affect the sense of it; and may still be considered," &sc.—Greene's Grammar, p. 89. "Although this is a general rule, yet the best writers often deviate from it in their practice. It is often the case that conjunctions connect dissimilar cases, modes, and tenses."—Alexander's Grammar.

271. The former word of the relation is sometimes understood; as, [I say] "In a word, it would not do." One preposition is sometimes the object of another; as, "And from before the lustre of her face."—Thomson. This forms a prepositional

phrase. Sometimes for has no antecedent term of relation; as, "For an old man to cheat, is pitiable."

276. The following are the principal cases, in which the subject is not placed before the verb:—1. In a question, unless the subject be an interrogative. 2. With the imperative mode. 3. In expressing earnest feeling; as, "May she be happy!" 4. In a subjunctive sentence without a conjunction; as, "Were it true." 5. When preceded by neither or nor, signfying and not; as, "This was his fear; nor was it groundless." 6. When words are placed before the verb for emphasis; as, "Here am I." 7. In a dialogue, with say, think, reply, &c.; as, "'Who are those,' said he."

277. The following are the principal cases, in which the adjective is placed after its substantive:—1. When other words depend on the adjective; as, "A mind conscious of right." 2. When the quality results from the action of a verb; as, "Virtue renders life happy." 3. For emphasis; as, "Goodness infinite." 4. When a verb comes between them; as, "I grew uneasy." 5. In many other cases in poetry; as, "Isles Atlantic."

When words and clauses are connected by conjunctions, the longest and most sounding should generally be placed last; as, "He is older and more respectable than his brother."

- 280. When power is denied, not is united to can; but when something else is denied, the words are separate; as, "He cannot go;" "He can not merely go, but stay there."
- 282. It will be found very important to attend to the subject of ellipsis; as many of the most important constructions are resolvable by it; and by supplying ellipses, a great number of special and unnecessary rules are avoided. By this means, also, we arrive more clearly to the exact meaning and construction of language; which, after all, is the great object of grammar.
- 283. "Those parts which are common to several verbs, are generally expressed to the first, and understood to the rest; as, 'He thought as I did [think]; 'If you will go, I will [go].'"—Brown's Grammar.
- 284. "A hundred years," "A great many men." We are generally told that such expressions are anomalies—exceptions to all rule—that a belongs to the plurals years and men! So great belongs to men, making great men! Is this the idea? It would be the same if little were inserted after many,—great little men! and a men! Such is the accuracy of the systems which have been taught to our youth.—Few, many, little, &c., when preceded by an article, generally become nouns; and they are derived from words which were originally nouns.

"Some grammarians call these words of number nouns, and suppose an ellipsis of the preposition of."—Brown's Grammar. So also Webster. "The article a converts few into a noun."—Parker and Fox's Grammar. "In these phrases, few and many seem to be used substantively, the preposition of being understood. Of is sometimes expressed after these words."—Prof. Coote's Elements of Grammar. "The words few and many in this case mean number, and the article agrees with this word number, which is understood, and which is singular."—Cobbet's Grammar. The words dozen, score, hundred, million, &c. are never adjectives; can you mention a case in which they are?

290. Worth was anciently a verb, signifying be, and used in every part of the conjugation; as, "Wo worth the chase, wo worth the day."—Scott.

293. But when the subjects require different forms of the verb, it is best to express it after each; as, "Either thou art in fault, or I am."

295. Some call the verb, when the auxiliary is understood, the *elliptical form* of the verb. The whole theory of the subjunctive is here developed in five lines.

298. "They desired nothing more than to receive their wages. In sentences of this kind, the infinitive is properly governed by some word understood; thus, 'they desired nothing more than they desired to receive their wages."—Parker and Fox's Grammar. "As many as [those persons are who] were present."—id.

Much might be added to Syntax, as is frequently done, in relation to style in general, and the beauties of writing. But all these things belong to Rhetoric, and we choose to leave them in their appropriate place, rather than to crowd every thing together in a single book. Rhetoric should be more studied in our schools, but it should be as a separate branch, rather than as a mere division of grammar. The author has already prepared the outline of a higher work on language, which work, if the present meets with encouragement, may at some future day appear.

ORTHOGRAPHY.

340. The rules of spelling, as commonly given, are so long as to be seldom remembered and applied. We have very much shortened the manner of expression, and have added one or two new rules.

378. We have labored to make punctuation as concise and

comprehensive as possible; yet we think that under our three general rules, we embrace all common cases. It is useless to endeavor to load the mind with a mass of nice distinctions. A few general rules, with judgment, will be of much greater service.

387. Some persons never put a comma before an and; but this is very inaccurate, and often leads to error in the meaning. See Kirkham's Grammar.

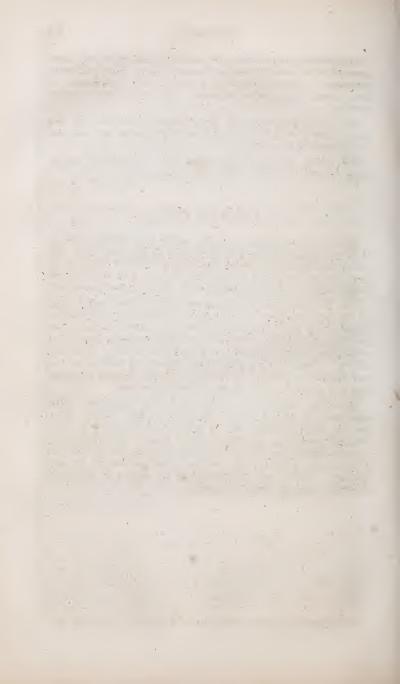
397. Many use the other marks after the periods in this case; as, Prov., June 4. But this is unnecessary.

PROSODY.

437. It is sometimes said, that after all, reading must be different from speaking, and must have its peculiar tones. We grant that reading is almost universally different from speaking; but we think it is a fault, and that no one can read perfectly, until he can read exactly as he would properly converse.

533. It will be perceived that we have divested versification of the technicalities of the ancient languages, and have expressed it in plain English. How much have our youth been accustomed to profit by the barren study of dactyls and pyrrhuses, when they were altogether unacquainted with the Latin and Greek? Here, as in other places, some have labored to clog our grammars with all the formality of the ancient tongues; but it is time for these things to come to an end.

544. The omission of initial letters, is sometimes called apheresis; of middle letters, syncope; of final letters, apocope; as, 'neath, med'cine, tho'. Prefixing an expletive syllable, is called prosthesis; inserting a word, tmesis; annexing an expletive syllable, paragoge; as, bestrown, to us ward, withouten. Uniting two syllables into one, is called syneresis; as, seest, for seest. These are all considered as figures, or deviations from the common forms of speech.



PART SECOND;

CONTAINING QUESTIONS AND EXERCISES,

AND BEING

AN ADAPTATION OF THE PRECEDING WORK

TO THE USE OF SCHOOLS.

THE NUMBERS CORRESPOND TO THOSE OF THE GRAMMAR.

TABLE OF PARSING.

BY ETYMOLOGY.

BY SYNTAX.

definitive - $kind$ - $number$. Seperat rule VII.	trans. – reg. – $mode$ – $tense$. $\begin{cases} Agreeing with its subject — Repeat rule VIII. \\ Used as a — Rule IX or X.—Sub. &c. [as above.] \end{cases}$	A Conjunction, Connecting — Repeat rule XI. Showing the relation between —. Repeat rule XII. Showing the relation between —. Repeat rule XIII. An Interjection, Repeat rule XIII.
is an Adjective	is a vere—	is a particle.
	$\begin{cases} a \text{ definitive } - kind - number. \\ a \text{ descriptive } - form. \end{cases}$	a definitive - a descriptive

Nore. It is important that the distinctions be given in their order, (as above,) commencing at the most general, and descending to the most minute. The words substantive, adjective, particle, and some others, may be dropped, when the pupil has become familiar with them; and finally he may be allowed to parse by Syntax only.

** Parse a compound thus; "What is a compound relative pronoun, equivalent to that which." (Then parse the two words separately.) So parse the compounds, whover, whatever, mine, &c.

FIRST COURSE.

QUESTIONS AND EXERCISES

FOR BEGINNERS.

TO THE SCHOLAR.

My Young FRIEND:-

You are about entering upon a study, which, if rightly pursued, is one of the most useful and interesting in which you can engage. It is the study of language; it is learning how to express our thoughts so that they may be easily understood, and may sound agreeable to those who hear.

What should we do without language? We could not talk to our friends, and tell them of our joys and our sorrows, our wants and our wishes. We could have no books, no schools, no meetings. We could know nothing of all that has ever taken place in the world, or of all that is going on beyond our sight. We could not be instructed in the way to be virtuous, to be useful, to be healthy, and to be happy forever. How unfortunate should we be! and how grateful ought we to feel for the blessing of language!

But all language is not alike. When men at first began to speak, they could not talk nearly as well as they can now. And when they first wrote, it was merely by drawing rough pictures on bark or leaves, or by scratching a few crooked marks on wood or rocks. They had

no printing, no books, no ink, no paper, no letters. It has been by learning a little at a time, and by studying what others have learned, that men have made language so extensive and so correct as our own *English* is. And now, if we will only learn, we may have words to say any thing we wish to say, and correctly too; and we may write down our thoughts upon paper, without the least error or difficulty.

But in order to do this, we must learn it. The little child, when he begins to talk, does not speak very correctly. Sometimes he pronounces words improperly, sometimes he uses the wrong words, and sometimes he does not know what words to use. As he grows older, he learns more; but still he makes many mistakes, and learns many incorrect expressions from grown people who do not speak rightly. He must therefore study Grammar, and if he attends to it well, it will teach him to avoid all these errors.

You will hear many persons say, "I had rather not go." "I done it yesterday." "You had ought to stay." "This is the roundest apple." "Who did you speak to?" "He has got it." "It lays on the table." Now all these expressions are wrong, and many others that are often used. Grammar will teach you how to avoid them; and certainly you would not wish, when you associate with intelligent people, to appear so ignorant as to make such gross mistakes.

Is not Grammar then a useful and interesting study? That you may attend to it so diligently as to find it such, and that you may reap the full reward of your labor in after life, is the sincere wish of

Your Friend,

THE AUTHOR.

ETYMOLOGY.

LESSON I .- Nouns.

QUESTIONS.—13. What are nouns? Mention some names of persons, of places, of things; of things that you can see, taste, hear, smell, feel; of things that you can merely think of, such as, love, greatness. As all the words you have mentioned are names, what are they called in grammar? Do you know of anything that has not some kind of a name? Are there then many or few nouns? Can you talk without using nouns? What is parsing? (See 197.) Parse the following words:

[Parse thus; -" Man is a noun, because it is a name." "Though is not a noun, because it is

not a name."]

EXERCISE.—Man, though, book, as, the, John, tree, houses, should, Mary, where, fan, Bangor, into, odor, thought.

Lesson II.-Nouns.

QUESTIONS.—13. How many kinds of nouns are there? What are they? 14. What is a proper noun? 15. A common noun? 18. An abstract noun? Mention some proper names of persons; common names of persons; proper names of places; common names of places; proper names of things, such as April, Monday; common names of things. Mention some abstract nouns. With what kind of a letter does a proper name begin? Parse the following words:

[Parse thus: "Man is a noun, because it is a name—common, because it is the name of a whole

EXERCISE.—Man, book, John, tree, houses, Mary, fan, Bangor, odor, thought, flower, wisdom, beauty, Newcastle, justice.

LESSON III.-PRONOUNS.

QUESTONS.—20. What are pronouns? What then does pro mean? What is the use of pronouns? How many kinds of pronouns are there? What are they? 21. What are personal pronouns? How many are there?

What are they? (What is in the parenthesis need not be recited.) 23. What are relative pronouns? How many are there? What are they? 27. What is the word for which a pronoun stands called? Pick out the nouns and pronouns in the following sentences, and parse them:

[Parse thus: "Who is a pronoun, because it is used instead of a noun-relative, because it relates directly to the antecedent man.]

EXERCISE.—The man who did this. The boy that studies. The dog which barks. A woman came with a gun to a man, and giving it up, said she thought he was in danger of the wolves who were coming, as they were very hungry. John said to James, "I will tell you directly."

[Read the last two sentences, using the antecedents instead of the pronouns, and see how much repetition is caused.]

LESSON IV .- PERSON.

QUESTIONS.—11. What are nouns and pronouns together called? What then are substantives? 28. What belong to substantives? 29. When is a substantive said to be of the first person? 30. When of the second? 32. When of the third? What is the only word properly of the first person? What the only two of the second? What words are of the third person? 33. Of what person are who and that? 34. When is a noun put in the second person? Parse the following substantives:

[Parse thus: "Man is a substantive, because it represents a person (11.)—a noun (R.)*—common (R.)—third person, because it is spoken about," "He is a substantive (R.)—a pronoun (R.)—personal (R.)—third person (R.)—with its antecedent man." Only the words in Italies are to be parsed.]

Exercise.—The man said he would go. John said to James, "I will tell you directly." I who come. Thou who comest. He who goes. I that go. Thou that goes. She that goes. It is a dollar. Henry, I want you to go with haste to James and see if he has given Mary, who is going, the book which she wished.

LESSON V.-NUMBER.

QUESTIONS.—35. How many *numbers* have substantives? What are they? What does the *singular* number denote?—the *plural*? 36. How do most *nouns* become

^{* (}R.) denotes that the reason is to be given.

plural? Mention some nouns that are singular; some that are plural. 47. What can you say of the numbers of the relative pronouns? Mention some nouns of which this is true. How is a pronoun's number known? 49. What is the plural of I?—of thou?—of you?—of he, she, and it? Parse the following substantives:

[Parse thus: "Bench is a substantive (R.)—a noun (R.)—common (R.)—third person (R.)—singular, because it denotes but one." "They is a substantive (R.)—pronoun (R.)—personal (R.)

-third person (R.)-plural (R.)-with its antecedent boys."]

Exercise.—Bench, rules, pens, chair. The boys say they will go. William said to George, "I was with you, when you said I knew we were in fault." Ye hypocrites! Thou spirit of darkness! The man who thinks he knows. The men who think they know. The women that think they ought. The child that thinks it ought. The thing which is. The things which are. You are the friend of virtue. You are the friends of goodness.

LESSON VI.—GENDER.

Questions.—51. When is a substantive said to be of the masculine gender? 52. When of the feminine? 53. When of neuter? 54. When of common gender? Mention some nouns that are masculine—feminine—neuter—common. 55. Of what gender is he?—she?—it?—I, thou, you, who?—which, that? Of what gender is a pronoun always? Parse the following substantives:

[Parse thus: "Boys is a substantive (R.)—a noun (R.)—common (R.)—third person (R.)—plural (R.)—masculine, because it represents males." "They is a substantive (R.)—a pronoun (R.)—personal (R.)—third person (R.)—plural (R.)—masculine (R.)—with its antecedent boys."]

Exercise.—The boys say they will go. William and Mary are on the road. The man thinks he will come. The lady thinks she shall go. This book has a spot on it. Joseph said to Nancy, "I want you to go." Nancy replied, "I want you to stay, for we cannot both go." Thou spirit of wickedness! Ye sons of virtue! The boy who did this. The girls who did this. The lads that study. The Miss that studies. The ox which pulls. The cows which come. The tree which stands.

LESSON VII.-REVIEW.

Questions.—What are names called?—words used

instead of nouns?—Nouns and pronouns together? What is the name of an individual object called?—of a class of objects?—of a quality? What is the use of pronouns? What are pronouns that show the exact person called?—those which relate directly to their antecedents? How many pronouns in all? How many persons are there?—numbers?—genders? Of what person is the speaker?—the person spoken to?—the person or thing spoken about? Of what number is one object?—more than one? Of what gender is a male?—a female?—neither?—either? Of what person are nouns generally? What effect does it have on a noun to add s? How are the person, number, and gender of a pronoun known? (227.)

EXERCISE.—Tell what word bolongs in each of the squares of the following table; or, if it is preferred, copy the table, and put the proper words in it.

	PERSONAL.						RELATIVE.		
-	1 Per	2 I	er.	3 Per. Mas.	3 Per. Fem.	3 Per. Neu.			
Singular,	1	. 3	5	7	9	11	13	15	17
Plural,	2	4	6	8	10	12	14	16	18

Table of Pronouns.

Supply a substantive in each of the following blanks, so as to make sense: A good —. Sweet —. — is wrong. — are red. These — are round. That — studies. The — who has her — best, shall have a —. The boy is studious; — will have his —. The man — is industrious will prosper. The stick — you hold is long. Sit down by my —, my little —; — wish to tell — a —.

Lesson VIII.—Definitives.*

QUESTIONS.—57. What are Adjectives? Then which of the following words is an adjective? Come, little boy. Should you think adjectives are much used? What do adjectives include. 59. What are definitives? 60. Mention the definitives which are singular;—plural;—of either

^{*} This lesson may be divided.

number. 61. When does an become a? Give one or two examples. 71. How may most definitives be used? Parse the following words:

[Parse a definitive thus: "A is an adjective, because it is added to a substantive—a definitive, because it defines—singu.ar, because it defines one object.]

EXERCISE.—A dog. A horse. An hour. An owl. A nuisance. The hat. The books. One day. Another year. These tables. Much money. Any men. Other people. This week. That pen. Those thoughts. Both girls. The second time. Two wings. No virtue. The very quality. The same coat. Several fences. Many pages. Every other time. All such ladies. What eyes!

FOR CORRECTION.—An hard saying. A humble heart.
An heavenly diadem. An wonderful invention. An younger man. An handsome child. A hostler. An

hero. Such an one. An union.

It will be seen that the words which and that may be either relative pronouns or definitives. Which are they in the following expressions? The dog which barks. Which dog? The man that* stands. That man. Which one is it? The one which is here. That boy that did it.

LESSON IX.—DESCRIPTIVES.

QUESTIONS.—72. What are descriptives? Give two or three examples. 74. What do many descriptives have? 75. What does the positive form represent? 76. The comparative? 77. The superlative? Give an example of each. 78. How are the comparative and superlative formed? Tell the three forms of the following words: Great, vast, sweet, sour, white, noble, feeble, red, blue, poor, sick, nice. Parse the following:

[Parse the descriptives thus: "Wise is an adj:ctive (R.)—a descriptive, because it describes—

positive, because the quality is in its simple state."]

EXERCISE. Wise men. Taller trees. The whitest house. The greatest purity. Small hands. The same old field. The reddest clouds. A splendid view. A grander scene. That very cat. The sublimest vision. Sweeter apples.

Supply an adjective in each of the following blanks:
—— men. —— man. —— boy. —— days are

^{*} That is a relative when it can be changed to who or which.

twice — days. — thoughts. The — time. — very day. Every — tree. All — pens. The — and — sun is very — hour brings — — blessing from our — father.

LESSON X .- VERBS.

QUESTIONS.—85. What are verbs? Then, which of the following words is a verb? "The boy writes." Can you make a sentence without a verb? Can you make a sentence without an adjective? Then which are more important, adjectives or verbs? Mention a verb which denotes being; some which denote action. How many kinds of verbs? What are they? 86. What is a transitive verb? 87. An intransitive verb? Give an example of each. 91. What are auxiliary verbs? Name them. Are auxiliary verbs used alone? Parse the following:

[Parse the verbs thus: "Studies is a verb, because it denotes action—transitive, because it affects the object, book." "Will is a verb (R.)—auxiliary, because it is a part of the verb go." "Will go is a verb," &c.]

EXERCISE.—George studies a book. He will go. Some men love rum. Health is a great blessing. We must love virtue. I can move this stone. She likes play. Fishes fill the sea. Oceans exist. The trees have stood. These are the books. William struck his brother. Joseph is a good boy. I hope he will be a good man.

LESSON XI.-Modes.

QUESTIONS.—93. What are modes? How many? What are they? 94. What does the indicative mode do? 95. The potential? 97. The imperative? Give an example of each. Parse the following:

[Parse the verbs thus: "Can go is a verb (R.)—intransitive (R.)—potential, because it implies power."]

EXERCISE.—You can go. I love play. George, study the book. You must study. We will take care. They may retire. He who is just will prosper. Go, little lamb. Thou shalt do it. Virtue should have its reward. Speak! I will hear.

LESSON XII.-Modes.

QUESTIONS.—98. What does the infinitive mode do? 99. The participial? 100. The participial active? 101. Passive? Give an example of each. How may infinitives generally be known? How participles? What nature have these two modes? What are the other modes called? Why? Parse the following:

[Parse the participial mode thus: "Walking is a verb (R.)—intransitive (R.)—participial (R.) active, because it represents a thing as really acting." Remember that the verb be cam, is, are, was,

were,) is not an auxiliary; but being may be regarded as one.]

EXERCISE.—He was walking. To walk is good exercise. I was [being] wounded. They are coming. I wish to take it. You may be excused. He, being called, came. We, having arrived, were requested to return. Take this book, William. I would ask you to come.

LESSON XIII-TENSES.

QUESTIONS.—104. What are tenses? 105. How many divisions of time? What two tenses have each division? 106. How many tenses in all? Name then. 107. How do the *imperfect* tenses represent a being or action?—the *perfect*? 108. How may the *perfect* tenses be known? Give an example of a perfect and an imperfect tense. 109. Which modes have all the tenses? What can you say of the other modes? Parse the following:

[Parse the verbs thus: "Studies is a verb (R.)—transitive (R.)—indicative (R.)—imperfect, because it represents the action as unfinished—present, because it implies present time." "Walking is a verb (R.)—intransitive (R.)—participial (R.)—active (R.)—imperfect (R.)"]

EXERCISE.—George studies a book. He was walking. They have gone. To write. Having come. He might go. They seem to have hurried. Mary had arrived. Stop! boy; hold this horse. You might have studied. John was struck. She will have finished. He who is just will prosper. I shall stay. The old house must have been crowded.

LESSON XIV.—CONJUGATION.

Questions.—113. What is called conjugating a verb? 114. In the indicative mode, what is the imperfect past of move?—the imperfect present?—the imperfect future?

the perfect past?—the perfect present?—the perfect future? &c. &c. Let the whole verb be thus reviewed,

both in direct and in promiscuous order.

Exercise.—Conjugate the verb move, thus: "Imperfect; indicative past, did move, or moved—present, do move, or move—future, shall or will move;—potential past, &c. Conjugate thus the verbs love, walk, hate, dread, wish, BE. (See 116, and 243.)

LESSON XV.--PRINCIPAL PARTS.

Questions.—110. How many principal parts has every verb? How are they marked in the table? What are formed from these? 111. What from the first part?—what from the third? Are any formed from the second part? 112. What parts are generally alike? When is a verb said to be regular?—when irregular? Give an example of each. 114. How is the indicative imperfect future formed? &c. Parse the following:

[Parse the verbs thus: "Will have moved is a verb (R.)—intransitive (R.)—regular, because its three parts are move, moved, moved—indicative (R.)—perfect (R.)—future." (R.)]

EXERCISE.—He will have moved. Virtue will receive a reward. I dislike an oath. Bright shines the rising sun. They are thought to have perished. He requested to be permitted to leave. John has found the pen. All those boys who can recite may raise the right hand. The little girl that we passed attends that school. Dogs which are cross deserve chastisement. Go, little kid; go seek the fold. I could have seen James walking.

Supply a verb in each of the following blanks: Men

—. The boy —. Who — a knife? John —

Thomas. Thomas — by John. He expects —

next week. Come, — the lambs play. He —

have — deceived. I — yesterday. I — to-day.

I — to-morrow. You must — before he arrives.

You must — when he arrives.

. 200 22400

Lesson XVI.—Adverse and Conjunctions.

QUESTIONS.—124. What are particles? What do particles include? 125. What are adverbs? Mention one

or two. 129. What are conjunctions? 130. Repeat the principal conjunctions. Parse the following:

[Parse a particle thus: "Very is an adverb, because it is added to an adjective to qualify its meaning."]

EXERCISE.—He is very kind and obliging. They are now here, studying very diligently. Thou and he are happy, because you are good. A most skilful artist. They act more kindly. He labors harder and more successfully than I do. When are you coming?

Supply an adverb in each of the following blanks:—
He reads —. She writes very —. We came —
late. — I was coming, I sweat — —. She will
go —. This water is — pure than that. I was de-

lighted to see him jump — — — — ...

Supply a conjunction in each of the following blanks: He is tall — slim. He reads well, — does not spell properly; — he spells better — you. I shall not go, — it is wrong. — she — he was there. — he slay me, — I will trust in him. — he — she were there.

LESSON XVII.-PREPOSITIONS AND INTERJECTIONS.

QUESTIONS.—132. What are prepositions? 133. Repeat the principal prepositions. 135. What are interjections? Name several. Parse the following:

EXERCISE.—The paper lies before you on the desk. Oh! what will become of such persons! He boasted of the privilege, and contended for it. Alas! how much

vanity in the pursuits of men!

Supply a preposition in each of the following blanks: Plead — the dumb. Qualify yourself — action — study. Think often — the worth — time. Live — peace — all men. Keep — compass. Many fall — grasping — things — their reach. A dozen — eggs. A few — them. A few — years. I will write — to-morrow. He lent — me some money. It is worthy — your regard. This is like — that. He jumped off — the fence, and went down — the street.

LESSON XVIII.—DIFFERENT USES OF WORDS.

Questons.—145. How may many words be used? 146. When do substantives become adjectives? 147. When do adjectives become substantives? Parse the following:

[Parse thus: " Water is a substantive used as an adjective, because it describes."]

Exercise.—Water-pail, sugarloaf, velvet cushion, seawater. Each of the brothers. Neither of them is industrious. What are you doing. That is too bad. A great calm. A calm day. To calm a storm. Damp air. Guilt casts a damp over the spirits. Soft bodies damp the sound. A little is sufficient. A little boy. The hail was very destructive. A hail storm. We hail you as friends. All hail! my friends. Every being loves its like. Make a like space between the lines. I like it. Behave like men. Still waters. To still a tumult. He labors still. This is my own house, for I own this house. A strange thought. I thought so. He is in the wrong. Wrong actions. You wrong yourself.

LESSON XIX.—REVIEW.

QUESTIONS.—4. What is that part of Grammar to which you have now been attending called? Of what, then, does Etymology treat? 5. Into how many general classes may words be divided? What are they? What are substantives?—adjectives?—verbs?—particles? How many kinds of substantives?—of adjectives?—of verbs?—of particles? &c. &c.

SYNTAX.

LESSON XX.—Subjects and Attributes.

QUESTIONS.—179. Of what does Syntax treat? 180. What is a sentence? What is the *subject* of a sentence? Of what does it consist? "The boy studies"—which word is the subject? 182. What is the *attribute* of a sentence? Of what does it consist? "The boy studies"—which word is the attribute? Point out the subjects

and attributes in the following sentences, and give the reasons:

Exercise.—Jane writes. The ox draws. The old house totters. The tree on the hill is old. Susan and Nancy walk. You and I are two. Two and three make five. They walk very fast. He was studying his lesson under the shade of a tree this morning. A very good boy studies his book very diligently. I am very anxious to obtain it. A great house. Arrived yesterday, from the West Indies, with sugar and molasses.

LESSON XXI.—DESCRIPTIONS AND EXPLANATIONS.

Questions.—183. What is the description in a sentence? 184. What is the explanation in a sentence? "A good man acts wisely." Here, what is the description, and what the explanation? 185. As we many parts are there, then, to a sentence? What are they? When is a sentence called perfect?—when imperfect? Point out each part of the sentences in the last exercise, and tell whether they are perfect or imperfect.

LESSON XXII .-- SENTENCES, SIMPLE AND COMPOUND.

QUESTIONS.—186. What two kinds of perfect sentences? 187. What is a simple sentence? Give an example. 193. What is a compound sentence? Give an example. 196. What is analyzing a sentence? 197. What is parsing? Analyze any of the exercises.

LESSON XXIII .- Rules 1 and 2.

QUESTIONS.—198. What relations should words have ? Upon what are these relations founded?—by what established? 199. What is the relation of a substantive called? How many cases in English? What are they? Repeat rule 1,—rule 2. Give an example of each. 208. How is the possessive of nouns formed? Parse the following:

[Parse the substantives thus; '' John's, (parse as in Ety.) possesive case, describing dog,'' Repeat rule 2. "Dog (as in Ety.) subjective case, being the subject of barks." Repeat rule 1.—"Two (as in Ety.) sub. case, being with three the subject of are." Repeat rule 1.]

Exercise.—John's dog barks. The sun sets. Eagles

fly. The officer's horse kicked the old man's son. Men's duties cease. Two and three are five. The boy and girl study. Who comes?

LESSON XXIV.—Rules 3 and 4.

QUESTIONS.—Repeat rule 3,—rule 4. "John struck George." Which word is subjective, and which objective? "George struck John;" how is it in this sentence? "John, who struck you?" Which word is subjective, which objective, and which absolute? 508. What can you say of the form of nouns? How is the possessive formed? What is the possessive of man, Mary, tree, &c. Parse the following:

EXERCISE.—Eliza's voice trembles. Cain killed Abel. The book is on the shelf. Mary, I am waiting for you. Peter's cousin's horse limps. Rule 4. He shot a deer. We saw a great tree with apples on it. Cats and dogs quarrel. The person who steals is punished. The pupils, that behave properly, shall be rewarded. Food, which injures the stomach, should be avoided. Ideas! why, some people's minds have no ideas.

LESSON XXV.-PRONOUNS.

QUESTIONS.—214. What can you say of most pronouns? What is declining a substantive? Decline I, thus: "Sub. I, poss. my, obj. me; plural, subjective we," &c. Decline you, thou, he, she, it, which, that. Parse the following:

Exercise.—I struck you. You struck me. He struck thee. Thou didst strike him. She struck it. It struck her. We struck you. Ye struck us. They struck you. Who struck them? You struck whom? My pen, which writes, is poor. Our house, that stands, is white. His mind excels her mind. Whose clock struck? Oh thou, who hearest prayer.

LESSON XXVI.—Rule 5.

[Recite 218, 19, 21, 26, without questions.—When substantives are in the same relation, parse all but the first thus;—"George (as in Ety.) sub. case, in relation with John, because they are connected by conjunctions." Repeat rule 5.]

George and John study. Henry, William, and Edward

walked. He or she wrote this letter. Susan, as well as Mary, was there. George Washington, the father of his country, is dead. Artexerxes, the king, decreed that Ezra, the priest, and scribe of the law, should be obeyed in all things. He is a man. Who is the king? This gentleman is my preceptor and friend. She walks a goddess, and she moves a queen. Bonaparte was made emperor of France.

LESSON XXVII.—Rule 6.

[Recite 227, and parse a pronoun thus ;-" Who (as in Ety.) with its antecedent he; (repeat rule 6.) Sub. case, " &c.]

He, who did it, knew his duty. The men, that do their work well, are well rewarded. I, who am your friend, will assist you. They that observed these things, remembered them. The trees, which he planted, flourished.

LESSON XXVIII.—Rule 7.

Recite 233, and parse an adjective thus ;-" Good (as in Ety.) agreeing with men." Repeat rule 7.]

Good men labor. The large trees stand. A smart horse trots. An old hen cackles. Such people work. This book is larger than that block. I am sorry. He is hungry. You are an idle boy. See those great apples. Full many a flower. Time is short. That kind and gentle child. How large and bright is the sun! At a little distance from the ruins of the abbey, stands an aged

LESSON XXIX.—RULE 8.

[Recite 239, 240, 241 .- Conjugate the indicative present of move thus : SINGULAR. PLURAL.

> I move or do move, You move or do move, Thou movest or dost move,

We move or do move. You move or do move. Ye move or do move.

He moves or does move,

They move or do move. So conjugate the perfect present, I have moved, &c. Conjugate the other tenses according to 240. In the same manner, go through with the verbs walk, love, sit, wish, &c. Then parse a verb, thus ;- " Study (as in Ety.) agreeing with its subject he and she." Repeat rule 8 .- Notice, that a verb becomes singular as a noun becomes plural.]

He and she study. I write. Thou thinkest. He wishes. We tarry. The glorious sun sinks to its rest, and the stars appear in the heavens. He who did it, knew his duty. Oh thou, who walkest in majesty. The man that despises virtue, will be despised. Thou shalt appear in brightness. John, Isaac, and Thomas own a boat.

LESSON XXX.—Rule 8.

[Recite 243, and parse the following:]

I am. Thou art. He is. You are. I was. Thou wast. He was. You were. I shall be. Thou shalt be. They shall be. He was angry. Ye are vile. We have been corrupted. Who is able to withstand him? She might have been respected.

LESSON XXXI.—Rule 9.

[Recite 243, 249, 250; and parse an infinitive thus; —"To ride (as in Ety.) used as a substantive, (repeat rule 9,) being with you the object of wish." Repeat rule 3.]

I wish you to ride. To walk is good exercise. To do as we would be done by, is the essense of morality. I expect to see him. Boys love to play. Mary dislikes to read. To obey our parents, is a solemn duty. I induced her to stay.

LESSON XXXII.—Rule 9.

[Recite 253, 255; and parse the following:]

I begged her to stay. The ship was about to sail. He was about to spring. He was able to do little, excepting to talk. She sought nothing, save to free herself from reproach. I tried [—] to find him. He is worthy [—] to live. We are apt [—] to do wrong. To be plain, I cannot grant it. To conclude, time is short.

LESSON XXXIII.—Rule 10.

A trotting horse goes fast. Susan having dined retired. He being wearied sat down. They were walking. I have been surprised. You must have been alarmed. It is not to be expected. Learned men are generally respected. Learning is generally respected. Walking is good exercise. I am fond of riding. Isaac dreads rising. The sun's rising was splendid. The learned are generally respected. He repented of having gone.

LESSON XXXIV .- RULE 11.

[Recite 260; and rarse an adverb thus; " Very (as in Ety.) qualifying good." Repeat rule 11.]

Very good boys study very diligently. Peter wept bitterly. She went away yesterday. She sung most sweetly. Mary rose up hastily. Cain wickedly slew his brother. He speaks more correctly. He was most attentively meditating. The ship was driven ashore. Then they were glad. They talk too much. All must die, sooner or later. George running hastily, fell down and hurt himself severely.

LESSON XXXV.—Rule 12.

[Recite 267; and parse a conjunction thus; "And (as in Ety.) connecting the words John and William." Repeat rule 12.]

John and William are coming, but they will soon return. He is very kind, and obliging. You and he are happy, because you are good. He labors harder than I do. If you do virtuously, then you will prosper. Though he slay me, yet will I trust in him. As I knew that you would grant, I asked.

LESSON XXXVI.—Rules 13 AND 14.

[Recite 271, 274; and parse thus; "Alas (as in Ety.) and is independent. Repeat rule 14. "To (as in Ety.) showing the relation between alas and me." Repeat rule 13.]

Alas to me. He sat with a book in his hand. Oh! how cheerful is a seat by a good hot fire, in the great stove, on the hearth, in our school house! With a stick, he shoved it under the eaves of the house. Hurrah for the President! We walked through the deep and dark Gothic archway. They will come in a carriage.

LESSON XXXVII.—TRANSPOSITION.

[Recite 275, 281, and transpose the following:]

Sweet is the breath of morn. How swiftly time flies. With friends 'tis hard to part. O'er hills and dales they wend their way. What do people say it is? Ye are one another's joy. (224.) Whom do you imagine it to have been? Here am I.

Men in adversity most plain appear: It shows us really what and who they are: Then from their lips truth undissembled flows; The mask falls off; and the just features shows.

LESSON XXXVIII.—ELLIPSIS.

[Recite 282, 283, and supply the ellipses in the following:]

A large and a small apple. He reads and writes. I can go, and will. He made a good beginning, but a bad ending. I rose at seven. Much rain and snow. They sing and play most delightfully. I desire you will be good. A man, woman, and child. I love and fear him.

SECOND COURSE.

EXERCISES FOR PRACTICE AND FOR CORRECTION.

ETYMOLOGY.

1—19. The council is in session. The meeting has broken up. The committee were divided in opinion. The triumphing of the wicked is short. Many a fiery Alp. The Park was crowded. Let us go to the Strand. Such a Cicero is worthy of his country. Science was overthrown. The sciences flourished. Government was established. A government was established. The twelve Cesars. The judgment day. The London of America.

20—34. Whether we grapple it with the pride of philosophy.—Chalmers. It is impossible to please every one. There lives a man. Lives there a man? What things we had were taken away. You like what I dislike. Whatever comes must go. Whosoever will, may come. Who could resist? Not I. Whom have I in heaven but thee? None. Whom you meet, him exhort. You are a

man. Thou art the man. Oh thou, that hearest prayer. It is stormy. There are seven days in a week. How

comes it that you are here?

35-56. Spell the plural of wish, cargo, nuncio, distich, beauty, day, self, relief, man, child, brother, goose, mouse, penny, datum, erratum, crisis, hypothesis, index, calx, focus, magus, cherub, seraph, stamen, bandit, dishful, handful, Mr. Jackson, Miss Stevens, court-martial, butter, sloth. Spell the singular of dishes, rebuses, negroes, glories, staves, loaves, women, oxen, feet, teeth, dice, phenomena, arcana, theses, axes, vortices, appendices, genera, laminæ, beaux, scissors, alms, errata, anti-Tell the number of each of the following substantives and substantive expressions; Freeport, chairs, fan, he, we, series, I, who, that, ye, they, thou, it, which, sheep. The school is large; it is full. The schools are large. The school are in their seats. Two hundred barrel of fish. John and George are coming. Each star and meteor shines. No noise, no breath is near. William studies, and James. He or she did it. And every sense, and every heart is joy .- Thom. Each beast, each insect, happy in its own.—Pope. Diligent industry, and not mean savings, produces honorable competence. The saint, the father, and the husband prays. -Class book. All work, and no play, makes Jack a dull boy.—Old Proverb. Twenty sail of vessels. Fifteen head of cattle.

57-71. Such an humanity, who can tolerate? What

FALSE GRAMMAR.

^{36—47.} Boies, beautys, dishs, strives, loafs, childs, brethrens, foots, chairs, axises, generas, handsful, the Miss Williamses, pitches, scissor, seraphims, cargos, attornies, lifes, pences, automatas, vortexes, radiuses, beaus, bandittis, the Mr. Bakers. The indices of books. America has produced many genii. He reveled amid fairys and geniuses. This is worth twenty pennies. He was used to giving pence to children. He took much pain to do it. By this mean he succeeded. I like that specie of fruit. He shot two deers. Wheats are very high and oat is very low.

an hostility he manifested! None everlasting, none unchanging, reign. I shall take whichever way I please. They returned whatever they had stolen. The Lord loves the righteous. Full many a gem of purest ray. Many

a one [person] is found.

72-84. Few men think they have enough wealth. Who is wealthier than he? It was the liveliest creature I ever saw. He was the foremost in war, but the hindmost in peace; the best friend of the one, but the worst enemy of the other. The eldest was rather clownish in his appearance. I tell you a more excellent way. The Most High reigneth. She was very amiable, and nearer per-

fect than any person I ever saw.
85—92. Here I rest. Here I rest my hopes. She lives a virtuous life. She sleeps her long sleep. He walked the horse. She danced the child. They sink to rest. They sink their nets. The wood which he splits, splits easily. The meat will hurt, even if you do not hurt it. What he reads, reads well. I love to heat a room, which heats easily. She worried herself into her grave. They sung a song. Where wilt thou that we prepare it?—Bible. Thou wilt have enough, if thou doest thy duty.

93—114. Cain killed Abel; Abel did not kill Cain. Did Cain kill Abel? Then, if Cain killed Abel, one man can kill another. But one man should not kill another, and must we kill one man if he should kill another? Who wishes to be laughed at? We have been trifled

with.

115—123. They return by the next mail. I shall depend upon it, but will wait with patience. If you will

FALSE GRAMMAR.

61-84. A humiliating one.-Irving. This is a historical allusion. Another such a one. The ground is dryer than common. He is the livelyest person in town. she was in the utterest anguish. The littlest apple. A gooder man. The lesser Asia. A more loftier mountain. A more perfect model. The most almighty power. The least true story. A less round apple. The supremest dignity. Such an infinite number. How eternal is God! The most straitest sect of our religion.

wait, you shall have it. I dislike, I do dislike such actions. I went, I did really go at the time. I was standing. You are walking. They had been eating. He is deceived. You may have been told. She seems to be fatigued. He being wearied sat down to rest. I am come. He is risen. They are fallen.

124—128. I would rather die than thus go astray. There are twelve months, namely, viz. or to wit. He went two years ago. He was most supremely blest.

They were less largely concerned.

129—136. He came after I had come. He has been here since last Tuesday. You can go while I am waiting. He said nothing touching that. We shall start, notwithstanding this. Avaunt! foul fiend! Farewell!

my friend; adieu! Oh yes! a long adieu.

137. He requested to be permitted to live. That mind is not matter is certain. He knew of his father's being a judge. For an old man to cheat is very disgraceful. He permitted me to take it—a kindness I shall ever remember. That he should refuse is not strange. For what purpose they embarked, is not known. To be temperate, to use exercise, and to keep the mind calm, are the best preservatives of health.

139, 140. The first three miles. A dark brown horse. A pea-green jacket. A laughter-loving clown. A good old man. It seems to be right. Who would have desired to be there? You are to be supplied. His health made

necessary the journey.

141. It marks the degree the more strongly, and de-

FALSE GRAMMAR.

122, 123. The book is printing. The boards are planing. I am done. We are arrived. They have all spelt. He spilt the water. It is your bounden duty. He swang it over his shoulder. She has gotten it from him, but I gat it first. You had ought to go. He did ought to stay. Yes, quothed he.

127—136. He came more sooner than he ought. He feared most least of any. This is more nearer right. O! O! Alas! Woe to me! Yes, yes, I think so. See!

behold! they come.

fines it the more precisely. The oftener I see him, the more I respect him. You can do it as well as I can. We have labored in vain. Methinks I see thee there.

142—144. What rests, but that the mortal sentence pass.—Milton. And from before the lustre of her face. —Thomson. Wo to the day! that saw thee come. He spoke as though he were in earnest, and as though he would never shrink. They sat over against the temple.

145. Though I forbear, what am I eased.—Job. The enemy having his country wasted, what by himself, and what by the soldiers, findeth succor in no place.—Spen-

cer. He went a-shore. He came a-foot.

147. The laughable in objects particularly attracts him. The careless and the improvident, the giddy and the fickle, the ungrateful and the interested, everywhere meet us.

Together let us beat this ample field, Try what the open, what the covert yield.

All join to guard what each desires to gain.—Pope. The few and the many have their prepossessions. Bring each of your brothers and the little ones. Inferiors are

often envious of their superiors.

149—151. A conjunction is a word which connects. The is an article. Really! you are in good season. Amazing! I cannot believe it. The ship came to. The enemy hove to. Times gone by.—Irving. We sailed about pleasantly. But do not after lay the blame on me. He went before I did.

152—156. Since when I have not heard from him. Concerning him, I can say nothing. He had nothing, bating an old gun without a lock. It will continue from now till Saturday. He hath not where to lay his head. With him is one eternal now. The Son of God was not yea and nay.

155, 156. I know which way is best; it is that which I take. I know what book he had; it was what I gave him. Whatever sinks, does not float. Whatever form it takes is beautiful. Who, that has feeling, wishes that

time should change that affection?

157. He only struck me. He struck me only. The ill-natured boy was ill, but the well-behaved boy was well. He that has much money is much troubled, and he that

has little money, is little better off. A near friend lives near me.

158—160. Either you may go and neither may watch, or neither you may go nor may either watch. Was there no noise? No! it was midnight. She needs three dol-

dollars, for she must needs buy a parasol.

161, 162. He did it, but not intentionally. None but the brave deserve the fair. Born but to die, and reasoning but to err.—Pope. What no man knoweth, saving he that receiveth it.—Rev. None but they can aid us. I shall not strive for it, for it is wrong. As you insist upon it, I will do as well as I can. Yet still, he is yet alive, and is still in his senses. Since it was important, I have kept it ever since. I repeat, then, that he went then, and I say, therefore, that he therefore went.

163—169. Penknife, inkstand, notwithstanding, another, neither, none, myself, whoever, whenever, hereof, therefore, whereby, without, ashore, afoot, abed, whoso, wheresoever, uphold, intend, undervalue, overthrow, to

fall on, to cast about, unlearned, preternatural.

170—178. Grandeur, splendid, abbess, tutoress, Jewess, heroine, bridegroom, duchess, executive, testatrix, widower, richness, enrolment, dukedom, bailiwick, sisterhood, partnership, vassalage, prosperity, sulphuret, transparency, gladsome, lovely, frothy, blissful, comfortless, prosperous, widower, straighter, wiser, longer, expectant, prudently, friendly, accordingly, glazier, graze, upholsterer, patentee, Charleston, Newton, understand, oversee, cast about.

SYNTAX.

[FOR PRACTICE IN ANALYSIS, TAKE ANY OF THE EXERCISES.]

200—207. John's horse kicked William's dog. The business being finished, the court adjourned. The sun having risen, the day became fine. Plato! thou reasonest well. O grave, where is thy victory? O death, where is thy sting? English Grammar. Samuel Edwards, Stationer. Music! how sweet its charms. Where none but spirits live.

Brutus and Cæsar! what should be in that Cæsar? Shak.

Religion, what treasure untold,
Resides in that heavenly word!—Cowper.
Blest morn, that saw our rising God.
Oh wretched state of deep despair,
To see my God remove.—Watts.

A mighty maze! yet not without a plan.—Pope. He that hath ears to hear, let him hear.—Bible.

208—213. The planets' orbits are elliptical. For conscience' sake, leave us. Moses' writings remain. Jane,

FALSE SYNTAX.

200. Thee must be attentive to thy studies. (See 214.) Thee is a good boy. When will thee come? Them that oppress the poor shall come to want. Whomsoever is contented enjoys happiness. He reproved all whom he thought had done it.

201. John book is old. (See 208.) I will not destroy the city for ten sake. Moses rod. Much depends on the pupil composing frequently. It arose from the Pres-

ident neglecting his duty.

202. He spoke to thou. (See 214.) To poor me, there is nothing left. Is it I, who thou art angry with? Thou only have I chosen. She I shall more readily forgive. Who shall we send? He that is idle, reprove. Who should I meet but my old friend! How long will it take ye to do it? He accosts whoever he meets. They that honor me, I will honor. Who do you think I saw? Who did he enquire for? Thou. Who did you go with? Ye who were dead, hath he quickened. He who did it, you should correct, not I who am innocent. Who servest thou under?

203. Me being young, they deceived me. (See 214.) Thee refusing to comply, I withdrew. The child is lost; and me—whither shall I fly? Her being absent, the business was delayed. They all went, us only excepted.

Oh thee that hearest prayer.

Shall tremble, him descending.

208. Homers works are admired. (See 201.) A

Susan, and Nancy's seat is clean. For David my servant's sake. Lost in love's and friendship's smile. The captain of the guard's house. Felix' room. It is not for

one's interest to interfere in other's concerns.

214—217. I have your book in my desk. Thou hast his hat on thy bench. You and he struck her with it. She told him its history. Ye took from us our possessions. We gave them their due. They knew whom they served, and whose interest they sought. A religion whose origin is divine.—Blair. Who, that loves his neighbor, and whose heart is devoted to his good, would act thus? Theirs is the vanity, the learning thine. He came into this world of ours. [our possession.] An acquaintance of yours. Mine own beloved home is thine. He himself did it. They pleased themselves with the idea. She wept herself to sleep.

FALSE SYNTAX.

mothers tenderness, and a fathers care, are natures' gifts for mans advantage. A mans manner's affect his fortune. Wisdoms' precepts' form the good mans' happiness. Apple's are ripe. They are wolves in sheeps clothing.

209. Jesus's feet. Moses's rod. James's hat. For

Herodias's sake. For righteousness's sake.

210. Was Cain's and Abel's father there? Were Cain's and Abel's occupations the same? Were Cain's parents and Abel the same? Were Cain and Abel's parents the same? The Apostle's Paul's advice. It was the men's, women's and children's lot, to suffer severely. For David's my servant sake. Look opposite to Morris's and Company's.

211—213. William's wife's aunt's child's health. Ones duty can never be made anothers'. James Hart, his book, bought 1839. Asa his heart was not perfect

with the Lord.

214—217. The tree is known by it's fruit. Thee must give me mine horse. This is hisen. Here is our's; what has been done with theirs? Each is accountable for hisself. They settled it among theirselves.

219. My brother and him are grammarians. You and

218—220. He and his friend were there. You or he did it. Washington, as general, led the way to victory. She, but not he, was there. He was under Napoleon,

than whom a greater general never lived.

221—225. He that formed the ear, shall he not hear? They make utility the only rule of taste. My maker formed me man. God called the firmament heaven. They twain shall be one flesh. William Haskell, Shoemaker, lives there. Ambition, interest, honor, all concurred. Thou king of saints!

Thy maker's will hath placed thee here,

A maker wise and good.—

Thus shall mankind his guardian care engage, The promised *father* of the future age.—Pope.

Let us seek each other's good. See how these brethren love one another. Mechanics and farmers each have their appropriate sphere. As a poet, he is unrivaled.

He, and he only, can perform the act.

226. These are commonly reckoned adverbs. He taught his sons to become good citizens. I thought it to be her. I am the man. Tom struts a soldier. He was called Cæsar. The general was saluted emperor. They have become fools.

She looks a goddess, and she walks a queen.—Dryden.

The glim'ring moon shone queen.—Dwight.

FALSE SYNTAX.

us enjoy many privileges. Between him and I there is a difference of age; but none between him and she. Him and I went to the city together; but John and him returned without me. Will you permit Ralph and I to go? I will say it between you and I. Let Lemuel and I read. I told her as well as they. He expects it from you and whoever he has benefited.

221. I received it from my cousin, she that was here last week. I am going to see my friends, they that we met. They slew Varus, he that was mentioned before. I sent it to my brother's house, him whom you saw here. My two friends gave me this, them that we saw last night. These books are my friend's, him who keeps the library. 226. I know it to be they. Be composed, it is me.

227. The meeting was large; it held three hours. The council were divided in their sentiments. (See 44.) Socrates and Plato were wise; they were eminent philosophers. (See 50.) Neither John nor James has learned his lesson. That philosopher and poet has ended his days. Each soldier and each citizen should perform his part. I say that this book is mine. She wept herself to sleep. John himself knew that the hat was not his.

228-232. See the ship; how swiftly she sails! The giant war sweeps everything in his course. Whoever is idle, him reprove. The pigeon hies to her nest. The

FALSE SYNTAX.

I would not act thus, if I were him. Well may you be afraid; it is him, indeed. Who do you fancy him to be? Whom say ye that I am? If it was not him, who do you imagine it to have been? He supposed it was me;

but you knew it was him.

227. Every man will be rewarded according to their works. Rebecca took goodly raiment, and put them on Jacob. Take handfuls of ashes, and let Moses sprinkle it. No one should incur censure for being tender of their reputation. The nation was once powerful; but now they are feeble. The multitude eagerly pursue pleasure as its chief good. (See 44.) The committee were divided in its sentiments. The people rejoice in that which should give it sorrow. Coffee and sugar grow at the south, whence it is exported. (See 50.) Pride and vanity always render its possessor despicable. Despise no infirmity or condition of life, for they may be thy own lot. A preposition is used to connect other words; they are put before nouns. A certain number of syllables form a foot; they are called feet, because, &c. The society is large; she is in a prosperous state. (See 56.) 228. I am happy in the friend which I have long proved.

This is the horse whom my father imported. He has two brothers, one of which I know. What was that creature whom Job called leviathan? Those which desire to be safe, should do that which is right. There was a certain housholder, which planted a vineyard. The cattle who broke loose, have been found.

calf was large, therefore they killed it. Thou art the king that reigneth. Thou art the king that reigns. Thou who art our God, whose we, are and whom we obey. The monarch of mountains rears his snowy head.

Penance dreams her life away.—Rogers. Grim darkness furls her leaden shrowd.—id.

233-238. Every other time. Every third day. I love sugar and vinegar; but that is sweet, and this is sour;

FALSE SYNTAX.

229—232. The king of day rises in all its splendor. Whoever is upright, will succeed in its undertakings Thou art the Lord, that didst choose Abraham, and brought him out of Ur. You wept, and I for thee.

You learned an all-commanding power, Thy mimic soul can well recall.—Collins.

233. Things of this sort are easily understood. (See 60.) Who broke that tongs? (46.) Where did I drop this scissors? I disregard this minutiæ. Those kind of injuries. We rode ten mile an hour. Twenty pound of beef. The water is six fathom deep. The lot is twenty foot wide. Scholasticus tried to appear learned, and, by these means, rendered himself ridiculous. Caled was modest, docile, and ingenious; and, by this means, acquired great fame. A thousands were there. He has been there this three years. Every men must die.

235. Much multitudes collected. He was such an extravagant young man. I never before saw such large trees. Did either of the company assist you? Here are six, but neither of them will answer. Have you recited either of the ten commandments this morning? Here

are two, but every one of them is spoiled.

236. Hope is as strong an incentive to action as fear; this is the anticipation of good, that of evil. The poor want some advantages which the rich enjoy; but we should not therefore account the former happy, and the latter miserable.

Mem'ry and forecast just returns engage, This pointing back to youth, that on to age.

237. He chose the latter of the three. Trissyllables are often accented on the former syllable. Which are

the former is solid, the latter liquid. What is sweeter than honey? This is the smaller of the pair. Which is the warmest month of the twelve? The Browns were here last eve. The Cæsars are no more. New York is the London of America. To such excellence, few have attained. To such excellence a few have attained.

239-247. He ought to stay. She need not fear such

FALSE SYNTAX.

the two more remarkable isthmuses in the world? Israel loved Joseph more than all his children. Eve was the fairest of all her daughters. Hope is the most constant of all the other passions. He is the better of the other two.

238. Let us wait in the patience and the quietness. The contemplative mind delights in the silence. I expected some such an answer. You will never have another such a chance. I persecuted this way unto the death. He is worthy the appellation of a gentleman. The chief magistrate is styled a President. He has the commission of a Captain. He is a better writer than a reader. He was an abler mathematician than a linguist. I should rather have an orange than apple. He is in a great haste. He is in great hurry. A man is the noblest work of creation. Such qualities honor the nature of a man. Drunkenness impairs understanding.

240. If thou do prosper my way.—Gen. To devote all thou had to his service. If thou should come. What thou said. If thou submitted. Since thou left. Before thou puts.—Kendall. Thou clears the head. Thou comes. Unseen thou lurks.—Burns. Oh thou, that hears prayer. (See 227.) Thou, who sees in secret.

- Oh thou my voice inspire,

Who touched Isaiah's hallowed lips with fire.

241. She dare not oppose it. He may pursue what studies he please. What have become of our cousins? Circumstances alters cases. What says his friends on the subject? What avails good sentiments with a bad life? Has those books been sent? What sounds have each of the vowels? The number look large. My people doth not consider. (See 44.) The multitude eagerly pursues pleasure. Patience and faith removes mountains.

a foe. Were I in his place, I would return. Such a thing were to be desired. Who art thou? His pavilion were dark waters. To tread, as it were, in the footsteps of antiquity.—Irving. If you had made an assignation, you had done wisely.—Montague.

FALSE SYNTAX.

(See 50.) Time and tide waits for no man. Wisdom, virtue, happiness, dwells with the golden mediocrity. He that do his duty will prosper. They who strives to do right will be blessed. If he do not utter it.—Lev. He or she study improperly. Now abideth faith, hope, charity.—Bible. He comes; nor want nor cold his course

delay.—Johnson.

243, 244. You was there. He that are. We that be. You be the one. I be about to go. Thou that is. Ye who was. If thou was there. The committee was divided in opinion. (44.) The congregation is in their seats. The school are dismissed. He and she is going. (50.) His politeness and good disposition was entirely changed. Idleness and ignorance is the parent of vice. He or his brother were there. Milton, that philoshpher and poet, are dead. No noise, no breath are near. Every boy and girl are present. A long course of time, with a variety of accidents, are necessary, &c.

245. Dear friend, Am sorry to hear of thy loss; but hope it may be retrieved. Should be happy to render thee any assistance in my power. Two substantives, when they come together, the former must be in the pos-

sessive case. He, where is he?

Will martial flames forever fire thy mind, And never, never, be to heaven resigned?

246. Not I but thou am happy. Neither he nor thou was there. Either the boys or I were in fault. Neither the captain nor the sailors was saved. The crown of virtue is peace and honor. Either thou or I art greatly mistaken.

247. I remember the family more than twenty years. I have completed the work more than a week ago. I have seen the coronation last summer. They have resided there, till a few months ago. This has been former-

248—256. He made each man work. He will not let them go. We see people do wrong. I dare say she will arrive. He was heard to say it. It was made to appear. It is difficult to tell. I have to write daily. He ought to go. Let there be light. Rapture yet [] to be. The world to come. You are not kind to treat me thus. He went so far as to promise attendance. To be or not to be—that is the question.

257—259. He was told to work. He was paid the money. I was denied this privilege. He was engaged in taking the city. He was engaged in the taking of the city. He was taking the city. He requested to be per-

mitted to live.

260-266. On! ye brave. To the right! forward! I'll in; I'll in. Love hath wings, and will away. He

FALSE SYNTAX.

ly much admired. I have in my youth, trifled with healh. Charles has grown since I have seen him. The next new-year's day, I shall be at school three years. I should be obliged to him, if he will gratify me in that particular. Fierce as he moved, his silver shafts resound. And he that was dead, sat up, and began to speak.

251. I need not to solicit him. You ought not walk fast. I wish him not contend. I dare not to proceed. I

have seen them to conduct badly.

252. I intended to have rewarded my son. I thought I should have lost it before I arrived. This it was my duty to have done. They were expecting to have found an opportunity to have betrayed him. I feared he would have died before our arrival. They would have taken care to have avoided it. I desire to have written sooner.

258. By observing of truth, you will command esteem. He prepared them, by the sending proper information. You cannot succeed without the taking pains for it. Nothing is worse than marrying of such a man. I could not forbear pitying of him. I have heard them discussing of this subject.

263. His property is near exhausted. They lived conformable to prudence. He reasons clear. He was extreme beloved. He speaks fluent, he reads excellent, but

went almost across the road. O Hershel, discovery here is all thy own. To thee my thoughts continual climb. He is exceeding brave. Will you go? No, no, no! Hither I come. He feels happy. He works happily.

267—270. He both eat and slept. I feared lest he should fall. This is better than that. I would rather go

FALSE SYNTAX.

does not think very coherent. He behaved submissive. I cannot think so mean of him. He was scarce gone. They conducted exceedingly indiscreetly. He is exceed-

ing upright. She dresses neat.

264. I will not by no means entertain him. Nobody never invented nor discovered nothing, in no way equal to this. Be honest, nor take no shape nor semblance of disguise. I did not like neither his temper nor his principles.

265. Bring him here, I shall go there again. Where are they all riding? Whither have they been. He

walked there very fast.

266. This is agreeably to our interest. His behavior was not suitably to his station. Conformably to their thoughts was their gesture. The clouds look darkly.

The apple tastes sourly.

267. He was older, but not so tall, as his brother. Whatever has, is, or shall be published. These interests are always different, sometimes contrary to those. Did he not tell me his fault, and entreated me to forgive him? Doth he not leave the ninety, and seeketh that which is gone astray? A caret is placed where some word is left out, and which is inserted. Where some necessary information is introduced, and which may be omitted.

268. He is both wise, as well as good. I feared lest he had fallen. He is superior in morals and in manners, than most men. He said, that, though he were ever so

wise.

269. It was read by the old and young. Both a large and small grammar. The old and new method. Both of pronouns and adjectives. Either of matter or mind. Either in an active or a neuter sense. Nouns in the singular and plural number. The second and third person.

than stay. Unless you return, you die. It matters not whether you go or stay. He is as good as great. Though he is poor, yet he is respected. He sleeps, and he will

sleep forever.

271—274. He went to Boston—even unto Boston—into Boston. He came from Portland. He is in haste to be at home. The book of William's brother. By faith, he looked with joy for death, fearless amid dangers. He was averse to play. He had an aversion to play.

[For practice in transposition, take any of the exercises.]

FALSE SYNTAX.

270. If he understand the subject, and attends to it. To be moderate in our views, and proceeding temperately, secure success. He might have been happy, and is

now fully convinced of it.

272. I have been to London, after having resided at France. They are going for Liverpool. They live at Ireland. I divided it between the three. Divide it among the two. Let us go above stairs. The shells were broken in pieces. They are gone in the meadow. 273. Averse from duty. Difficulty of fixing the mind.

273. Averse from duty. Difficulty of fixing the mind. Accused for betraying. He died for thirst. Confide on him. A prejudice to him. Rely in this. Disappointed of it. This is different to that. Founded in truth.

First efforts in this subject.

278. A young fine man. An old rich man. The two first were gentlemen; the three others, ladies. The two first syllables. The four last verses.

279. He feared to deliberately do it. He appeared to

carefully examine it.

280. He speaks in a distinct enough manner to be heard. A conjunction is chiefly used to connect. They are chiefly marked by cases. These are chiefly derived from other languages. Conjunctions are principally divided, &c. Syntax principally consists of two parts. Adverbs seem originally to have been contrived. Relalative pronouns relate, in general, to some word, &c. That boy is the grandson of Washington, who is playing there. William's, (who has left,) hat. Whom do you look for? Which street do you live upon? I saw a

283. Lo, the poor Indian, who, &c.—Pope. One perishes, or both. Who could but weep at such a sight? I know not what [] to do. There are several particulars: as, or as follows. What! put me off till September. Our best thanks for your Indian sweetmeats.—Langhorne. He cares not what he says.

284. A dozen times is as good as a hundred. A million years. A great many little men. A half a mile intervened. A little riches is a charming thing. Every twelve months is a year. Here's a few flowers! but about midnight more.—Cymberline. Six times four are

twenty-four.

285. He has gone a hunting. We rode sixty miles that day. The wall is ten feet high. Wheat is eight shillings a bushel. He resided here many years.

286. I paid him the debt. They offered me a seat. He asked them the question. I would beg you to come. They made him a present. She taught me grammar.

287. And who but wishes to invert the laws of order,

sins. Who dies shall live again.

288. This picture of my friend's. A subject of the emperor's. I sing the nine. Philip was one of the seven. He came unto his own, and his own received him not.

289-293. Whose books are these? John's. gave them to him? I. It is worthy the highest reverence. It is worth a shilling. They are nothing like each other. Come this way. You or I will go.

294. My soul turn from them, turn we to survey.-Goldsmith. Fall he that must, and live the rest.—Pope. Blessed be he.—Bible. Thy kingdom come.—id.

295. If to be perfect, then are we happy. Though he

FALSE SYNTAX.

ship gliding under full sail through a spy glass. All over

the country.

295. Despise not any condition, lest it happens to be thy own. If he acquires riches, they will corrupt his mind. I shall walk unless it rains. As the teacher depart the scholars behave improperly. Though He be high, He hath respect to the lowly.

slay me. Unless he wash himself. Had I been there. If the stage arrive. Unless thou come. Though thou

depart.

296, 297. Granting this, what will follow. The very chin was, modestly speaking, as long as my whole face.

—Addison. He went a week since. He died a year ago. Who went up the road?

298. An object so high as to be invisible. He desired no more than to know this. Avoid such as are vicious.

FALSE SYNTAX.

298. He is as wise as thee, but more sinful than her. Not fear but labor have overcome him. All save us are happy. She as well as her sister have arrived. I, but

not thou, wilt go.

300. Why do ye that which is not lawful to do? It always has, and always will be laudable. This is the worst thing could happen. He is still in the situation you saw him. I know no part would yield more variety. In the temper of mind he was in. He desired they might go. Return thanks to whom only they are due. Opposite the church.

301, 302. I will not allow of it. It is now extant. He gave it free gratis. I am going to go. He is a coming. I am a going. From whence sailed the expedition.—Irving. From whence can be discerned.—id. Like as a father pitieth his son. He said how that he would go. He has got it. Who finds him in money. He covered it over. If I had have known it earlier. He had'nt ought to do it. He killed them dead. He mentioned it over again. He went for to worship. He answered and said. They both met together. The hour is coming in the which.—Bible.

303. I had much rather be myself the slave. Cowper. I left my books to bind. This house is to let. I am to blame. I have ever been of this mind. Excuse me for not calling. It is acquired by practise. He said how he could go. I feared lest I should be deserted. He is seldom or ever right. They will never believe but what it was me. Be it never so true. I have not hearn it. Was I an officer, &c. Is the gentleman in? Frequent

To as many as received him. They were as follows. He is angry, as appears by this letter. He is taller than I. He knows as much as you. N. B. But, save, and as well as, properly come under this remark, for they all are more correctly considered as conjunctions than as prepositions; as, None but he [] was there. (not him.) All save thou [] are gone. (not thee.) Nothing but wailings was heard. No man save he had survived.—Scott. We, as well as thou, have been. Love, and not fear, prevails.

FALSE SYNTAX.

opportunity. Give me them books. He seed him afore. I an't cold. We wer'nt cold. Whither he will or no. Be that as it will. He knows nothing on it. He is keeping school. He has just gone past. I will speak firstly of him. He has a good deal of care. Boston and New-York have much business, especially the later.

304. The then ministry. The soonest time. The above discourse. Thine often infirmities. It seems

strangely.

305. Repenting him of his design. They enlarged themselves on the subject. Flee thee away. From calling of names, he proceeded to blows. To vie charities. He strives to agree opposite things. She affects, in order to ingratiate with you. I will not allow of it. He was entered into the house by his friends. It lays on the table. Will you lie it down? He was setting in a chair. Will you sit it down? Learn me grammar. They are growing cotton.

306. I had wrote. He begun. He run. I have eat. He would have spoke. The sea has rose. You have mistook it. I have catched cold. The villain was hung. To have went. I done it. James has wrote his copy. Could he have bore it. You should not have did so. He

hath bore witness.

307. Of some of the books of each of these classes of literature, a list will be given. He expressed the pleasure he had in the hearing of the philosopher. We have stricken off a thousand copies. Thou laughest and talkest, when thou oughtest to have been silent. Ye can't deceive God.

PROMISCUOUS EXERCISES IN PARSING.

She seems to lord it (22) over the deep.—Irving. Have mercy (18) upon us. There (22) is no peace. He knows what is right. Whoever (25) drinks must die. Two hundred (48) barrel of fish. Two and three make five. (50, 181.) That philosopher and poet was (50, 223) one. Each doctor and lawyer is (50) one. An (62) historical poem. None everlasting reign. (63.) Full many (68) a flower is born to blush unseen. One rules by laws, another by power. (71, 147, 288.) This is a book of John's. (288.) He ran himself (90) to death. The curfew tolls the knell (90) of parting day. Where wilt (92) thou that we prepare it? If thou go. (295.) If thou shouldst go. (96, 188-192.) It were a pity were (244) he thus disgraced. It had (244) been well for him, had (295) he gone. You are smiled upon. (102.) We leave (117) next week. I will go, he will go. (118.) I did go.

PROMISCUOUS EXERCISES IN FALSE GRAMMAR.

The scriptures are more valuable than any writings. I shall say nothing farther. I had rather go. You lay in bed too late. They were conversing together about it. He fell down off from the hill. They bear a mutual likeness to each other. They entered into the house. Restore that back again. At the first beginning of the book. Let us speak, first of all, of that. I mixed them both together. I searched all the country throughout. I have just now written. He only spoke three words. Where are you a going. He put money in his pocket. This here. I cannot by no means allow of it. I intended to have rewarded him. He is exceeding upright. These will take soonest and deepest root. A worser conduct. It runs the faster, the lesser weight it carries. I will give them two quills to my friend. Every person are bound by the duties of morality. A new pair of shoes. We have within us an intelligent principle, distinct from body and from matter. The title of a duke was given him. The number of inhabitants in the two countries do not exceed sixteen millions. The fleet were

(119.) I am moving. (120.) I am moved. (121.) He did it when (131) he pleased. I wish you to ride. (138, 250.) The first two (139, 234) stanzas. It is to be. (140.) Methinks (141) I see him. The more (141) I strive. He ran as though (142) he were crazy. He sat over against (143) the temple. Alas to me! (144) I am undone. A few men. (148, 284.) A hundred sheep. (284.) I will give you a solution of the comma, and, and it. (149.) He rode about. (151.) It comes from above. (153.) He said that he should punish that boy that did it. (156.) Who else (157) was there? Can you go? No! (159.) He must needs (160) go through Samaria. Oh deep enchanting prelude (203—206) to repose. Syntax. (207.) The king of England's crown. (210.) This is my book,

PROMISCUOUS EXERCISES IN FALSE GRAMMAR.

seen sailing up the channel. It is impossible continually to be at work. Thou, which has been a witness of the fact. They which seek wisdom will certainly find her. There are millions of people in China, whose support is derived from rice. He instructed the crowds who surrounded him. Who ever entertains such an opinion, he judges erroneously. Who did they send to him? Is it I, who he is displeased with? Thou or I art greatly mistaken. Humanity and knowledge, with poor apparel, excels pride and ignorance under costly attire. The possession of our senses entire, of a sound understanding, of friends and companions, are often overlooked. Take need lest thou failest. On condition that he comes, I will consent to stay We have as many advantages as them; but they have one greater privilege than us. Several alterations and additions have been made to the work. He is more bold, but not so wise as his companion. Neither has he, nor any other persons suspected it. The court of France or England was to be the umpire. Take the same measures that I have. We do not want it more than the rest of our neighbors. The deaf man whose ears were open, and his tongue loosened. The fields are pleasant; but never so much as in the spring. Their intentions might, and probably were, good. Sincerity is as valuable, and even more valuable than

and that too is mine. (215.) I myself (217) will go. Washington, than whom (220) a greater man never lived. The forefathers of the hamlet sleep each (224) in his narrow cell. The sun rises in all his (229) splendor. He need (242) not go. Who art thou. (246.) To lie (249) is base. I wish to ride. (250.) I will labor to do it. (253.) He was asked his opinion. (259.) Away! old man. (261.) Say first, of God above (261) or man below. He will be home next week. (285.) Tell me (286) your opinion. He said unto the sea, "Peace, (283) be still." To live long ought not to be your favorite wish, so much as to live well. (298.) The plank is one inch too thick. They cried, "Away with him." Ye are one another's joy. (224.) They love each other. He called the company, man by man. Only he struck me. He only struck me. You are infinitely too good; first, to write (253) a kind letter, &c .- More. Bustle is delight-

PROMISCUOUS EXERCISES IN FALSE GRAMMAR.

knowledge. It shall be displayed and heard in the clearest light. Examples to be corrected under note 1. The why and wherefore. Mode is a form of the verb; there are five. The words parent, &c. are used indifferently for males and females. Ish may be accounted in some sort a degree of comparison. In some words, the superlative is formed by adding most to the end of them. Common use in which the caprice of custom is apt to get the better of analogy. What is equivalent to that and which. The plural others is only used when apart from the noun. The may agree with nouns in the singular and plural number. The relative being of the same person that the antecedent is. They retain the same termination that they would, &c. Parse the prepositions, nouns, &c. governed by them. The higher the river, the swifter it flows. James learns easier than Juliet. Such a bad temper is seldom found. Where abouts is it? Look on page nineteen. A crow is a large black-bird. I saw a horse fly through the window. (horsefly.) I don't think it is so. Aint, haint, wont, woodent, izzent, whool, &c. I reckon so. I guess I am here. I bear the whole heft. Has he ben here? Dooz he know it? &c. &c.

ed with his nut-crackers, and says he now loves Hannah More a great deal, and Miss Neal only a little. A genuine Roger of the vale.—Langhorne. Angels and men, assist me. Angels and men assist me. He requested to be permitted to live. I do not care a sixpence whether he is wet or dry. The darker the ignorance, the more praise to the sage who dispels it;—the deeper the prejudice, the more fame to the courage which braves it .-Few days in Athens. Ah! my sons, here is indeed a pain, a pain that cuts into the soul.—id. Is it forbidden us to mourn its loss? If it be, the power is not with us to obey.—id. The happier reign the sooner it begins; reign then; what better canst thou do the while.—Milton. Knowest thou not this of old, since man is placed upon the earth, that the triumphing of the wicked is short, and the joy of the hypocrite but for a moment?—Job. They shall every one turn to his own people, and flee every one into his own land.—Isaiah. Ye have heard that it hath been said, "An eye for an eye, and a tooth for a tooth."-Matt. Then the king of Babylon's army besieged Jerusalem, and Jeremiah the prophet was shut up in the court of the prison which was in the king of Judah's house.—Jer. I know not who he is.

LOVE.

The ransomed spirit to her home,
The clime of cloudless beauty, flies;
No more on stormy seas to roam,
She hails her heaven in the skies.
But cheerless are those heavenly fields,
The cloudless clime no pleasure yields,
There is no bliss in bowers above,
If thou art absent, holy love!—Tappan.

REMEMBER ME.

Remember thee! remember thee! while flows the purple tide,

I'll keep thy precepts in my heart, thy pattern for my guide. And when life's little journey ends, and light forsakes my

Be near me at my bed of pain, and teach me how to die.

Sigourney.

EDEN.

In your imagination go back to the origin of the world, when every thing was very good, and all creation harmonized together. Love beamed from every countenance; harmony reigned in every breast, and flowed mellifluous from every tongue; and the grand chorus of praise, begun by raptured seraphs around the throne, and heard from heaven to earth, was re-echoed back from earth to heaven.—Payson.

My Mother.

My mother's voice! how often creep
Its accents o'er my lonely hours!
Like healing sent on wings of sleep,
Or dew to the unconscious flowers.
I can forget her melting prayer,
While leaping pulses madly fly;
But in the still, unbroken air,
Her gentler tones come stealing by,
And years, and sin, and manhood, flee,
And leave me at my mother's knee.—Willis.

RELIGION.

It is her office to elevate and improve mankind; not by looking down upon them from above, but by dwelling familiarly and habitually among them, restraining by the respect which her presence inspires, every thing impure and unholy, until she has awakened aspirations after the pure, the holy, the spiritual, the infinite, and the eternal. — Whitman.

YOUTHFUL SPORT.

Encompass yourself as often as possible with the gay faces of the young. Teach them by example, to be happy like rational beings, and to enjoy life without abusing it. Let the ripe fruit be seen with the green—the blossom with the bud—the green with the fading leaf, and the vine with its natural support:

Show the ripe fruit with the green—
Fresh leaves twining with the sear;
As in tropic clumes is seen
Harmonizing through the year.—Furbish.

ELOQUENCE.

Let the minions of legitimacy extinguish, if they can, the emulation of ancient eloquence; it is their most dangerous enemy; but let us, who inherit the liberties of the ancient republics, cherish it with a sacred devotion. It is at once the child and the champion of freedom.—Ware.

THE BURIAL.

"Room for the dead!"—a cry went forth—
"A grave—a grave prepare!"
The solemn words rose fearfully
Up through the stilly air;

"Room for the dead!"—and a corse was borne
And laid within the pit;
But a mother's voice was sadly heard—
"Oh, bury him not yet!"—C. P. Ilsley.

y him not yet!"—C. P. Ilsley

OUR COUNTRY.

What nation presents such a spectacle as ours, of a confederated government, so complicated, so full of checks and balances, over such a vast extent of territory, with so many varied interests, and yet moving so harmoniously! Show me a spectacle more glorious and more encouraging, even in the pages of all history.—*Brooks*.

CHIEF JUSTICE MARSHALL.

Oh! well, with spirit bow'd,
Above his bier
May a broad empire crowd,
With prayer and tear!
—His be its requiem—deep and far—
A nation's heart his sepulchre!—Grenville Mellen.

THE SOUL.

Aided by the brightest images of earth, who can bring to view any tolerably good picture of the HUMAN SOUL!—who can draw the outlines of thought!—thought that is immeasurable as the universe!—thought that could encompass, with the quickness of the lightning's flash, all that God has made.—Cox.

NOON IN INDIA.

Then all grew still. The sultry air
Lay stagnant in the jungles there;
The floweret closed its withered bell;
From the parched leaf the insect fell;
The panting birds all tuneless clung
To the still boughs where late they sung;
The dying blossoms felt the calm,
And the still air was thick with balm.

Mrs. Stephens.

THE FIRST SETTLERS.

When we look back a space of just two hundred years, and compare our present situation, surrounded by all the beauty of civilization and intelligence, with the cheerless prospect which awaited the European settler, whose voice first startled the stillness of the forest; our hearts should swell with gratitude to the author of all good, that these high privileges are granted to us.—Wm. Willis.

VALLEY OF SILENCE.

Has thy foot ever trod that silent dell?
'Tis a place for the voiceless thought to swell,
And the eloquent song to go up unspoken,
Like the incense of flowers whose urns are broken,
And the unveiled heart to look in and see,
In that deep, strange silence, its motions free,
And learn how the pure in spirit feel
That unseen presence to which they kneel.—Cutter.

EXTRACT FROM THE "WAR SONG."

Men of the North! look up!
There's a tumult in your sky;
A troubled glory surging out;
Great shadows hurrying by.

Men of the North! awake!
Ye're called to from the deep;
Trumpets in every breeze—
Yet there ye lie asleep.—Neal.

WORSHIP.

In the sanctuary is the concentrated devotion of many hearts. Heaven is brought down to earth; eternity takes hold on time; this world yields its usurped throne in the hearts of men, and Jehovah reigns triumphant, the Lord of their affections.—Cummings.

APRIL.

Sweet April! many a thought
Is wedded unto thee, as hearts are wed;
Nor shall they fail, till, to its autumn brought,
Life's fruit is shed.—Longfellow.

THE TEACHER'S FAREWELL.

The season of our union has now come to an end; its labors and its cares are over, its pleasures and its pains. You have engaged with zeal and success in the pursuit of science, and your bosoms are swelling with anticipations of the scenes of activity and usefulness, upon which you expect ere long to enter. Go on, then, to your work! You will find enough of holy benevolence to be exercised, and enough of arduous labor to be performed. A world is stretching forth its hands for your assistance, and it is glorious to live for your Maker and for man.

Fix high your object, and never flinch from its pursuit, to the latest hour of your mortal career. The storms and the tempests of earth may lower around you, and the clouds of adversity obscure, for a time, the sun of your hope. But that sun will at last burst forth in all its splendor, and gild with eternal radiance the diadem upon the victor's brow!

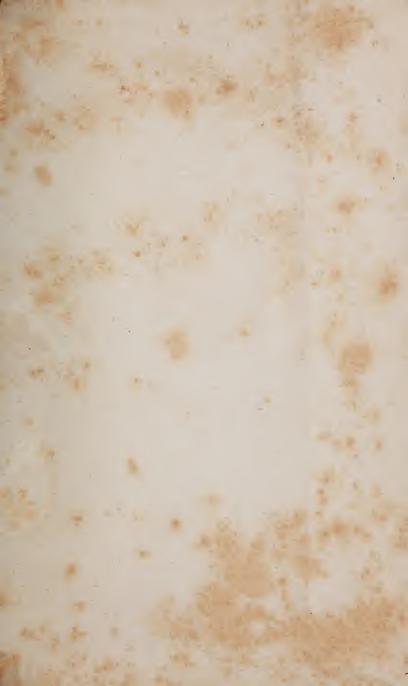
Thus, though we all meet no more on this consecrated spot, and amid these hallowed scenes of your youthful studies—though the next setting sun may find us far, far apart; you may each twine your memories around this shrine of your early affections, and, living for a common cause, may look upward to a common reward.—G.











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